

The Nation

VOL. XXXIX.—NO. 1010.

THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1884.

PRICE 10 CENTS.

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Premiums on Policies not marked off 1st January, 1883. 1,530,237 53
Total Marine Premiums. \$5,708,890 63

Premiums marked off from 1st January, 1883, to 31st December, 1883. \$4,260,428 03
Losses paid during the same period. \$1,901,942 38

Returns of Premiums and Expenses. \$850,080 70

The Company has the following Assets, viz.:
United States and State of New York Stock, City, Bank and other Stocks. \$8,000,795 00
Loans, secured by Stocks and otherwise. 1,056,300 00
Real Estate and Claims due the Company, estimated at. 425,000 00
Premium Notes and Bills Receivable. 1,588,306 79
Cash in Bank. 338,710 68
Amount. \$12,372,312 47

Six per cent. interest on the outstanding certificates of profits will be paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next.

The outstanding certificates of the issue of 1870 will be deemed and paid to the holders thereof, or their legal representatives, on and after Tuesday, the fifth of February next, from which date all interest thereon will cease. The certificates to be produced at the time of payment and cancelled.

A dividend of forty per cent. is declared on the net earned premiums of the Company, for the year ending 31st December, 1883, for which certificates will be issued on and after Tuesday, the sixth of May next.

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The Nation.

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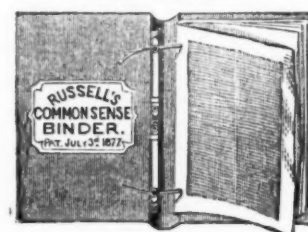
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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, NOVEMBER 6, 1884.

The Week.

ONE of Cleveland's great merits is that he is totally unpledged. Our sincere belief is that there has not, since Abraham Lincoln's second election, been a President so completely free from mortgages and liens and liabilities of every description on taking office as he will be. Moreover, we are ready, if any one wishes it, to make the admission that this is due in part to circumstances, and not wholly to the austerity and rigidity of his own character. One reason of it is, that he has not figured in public life as a legislator, or, in other words, has not had what Blaine's friends call "experience," and has not therefore had a chance, even if he were so disposed, to become an adept in making deals and bargains. Another reason is, that he did not get the nomination through a transaction with the corrupt element of his party, as Blaine got his through an "arrangement" with "Pow" Clayton and his Arkansas delegation. He was nominated, in fact, in spite of this element, in order to secure the support of the Independents, and as a marked contrast in the right direction to the Republican candidate. He consequently owes it nothing. His friends and associates are not speculators or great moneyed men, and his life has been passed not in "operations," but in the regular industry of his own profession and of weighty public trusts. His tastes, moreover, are simple. Nobody has been able to appear, even in a campaign of extraordinary lying, with the smallest charge against his integrity. He is poor, but he owes no man anything. Nobody says he ever cheated, or took advantage of him in any bargain, or unloaded on him any kind of "stuff." The sources of his income are known to all the world—an important point in these days—and nobody charges him with spending what he has not earned. Instead of being useful in "many channels," he has been useful only in one—that of an honest calling. He has never had to ask anybody, in any business transaction, to "keep his name quiet," or to burn a letter, and has never refused to explain any doubtful passage in his career.

If we are right in all this, and if we are right, as we think we are, in believing that his career as Mayor and Governor shows that he is himself, apart from all favoring circumstances, a man of sturdy and unbending independence, he will, when he comes to make up his Cabinet and choose his advisers, be extraordinarily, we might almost say unprecedentedly, free. We are not going to engage at this period in the business of Cabinet making, by guessing the names of persons who might possibly compose it. Nor are we going to do anything so invidious as to compare by name the leading men of the Republican party as it stood in the late contest, with the leading men of the Democratic party, who will probably stand around Cleveland. But we will say to all who

doubt whether the United States Government will be safe and glorious in his hands that, in the estimation of all unprejudiced persons, the Democrats from among whom Cleveland will take his advisers are greatly superior in ability and, above all, in *personal character and devotion to the public interests*, to the band who have hitherto surrounded Blaine, and whom he would, willy-nilly, have been compelled to reward in case he was elected. On this point at least there can be no mistake. We owe an apology, in truth, to men like Randall, Carlisle, Hewitt, Bayard, Thurman, Gibson, McPherson, Pendleton, McDonald, Hurd, and Kernan, for mentioning them in the same column with the company of speculators who took a "flyer" in James G. Blaine's political fortunes. Anyone who thinks that the American name or fame or prosperity will suffer in such hands, must believe that the Republican experiment on this continent has failed disastrously.

We extend our most profound commiseration to our esteemed contemporary, the *Sun*. After a campaign for Butler, which it conducted with great energy and a phenomenal disregard of its own previous utterances, it succeeded in polling for him in this city a grand total of 3,320 votes. In Brooklyn the grand total is somewhere between 1,000 and 2,000. We can recall no triumph in modern journalism at all comparable with this. As the editor of the *Sun* surveys the returns, from his point of view that Butler was the only worthy candidate in the field, what a pessimistic opinion he must be forced to adopt of the world in general, and of New York voters in particular.

The great object of Butler's candidacy, the saving of Massachusetts to Blaine, has been accomplished, but with this the *Sun* had nothing to do. Had Butler not been in the field, Massachusetts would have given her vote to swell the protest of the honest sentiment of the country against the infamy of Blaine's nomination. With the aid of Butler, Blaine has secured a beggarly plurality of 8,000 or 10,000 in the State, in place of the usual Republican majority of at least 50,000. In Boston alone Cleveland gained more than 6,000 votes. Blaine has only a minority of the vote of the State, and the verdict of Massachusetts goes upon the record against him.

In his final speech of the campaign General Butler said that if he had stuck to his profession, he could have made \$5 for every \$1 he has made by running as a side-show for Blaine. This is probably the most unquestionable truth which he has uttered during the canvass. His fees as a lawyer have been mainly derived from large corporations, and from criminals who have been trying to escape the payment of their just debts to the Government, and such clients have always been obliged to pay him liberally. The Blaine campaign fund has not supplied him with anything like so generous a source of income. He has had a palace-car,

and has been paraded in it over the country, but, outside Massachusetts, his following dwindled so rapidly that it ceased to be looked upon as an important factor in Tuesday's result. As a candidate he has been a failure, and even as a buffoon he has fallen far short of many of his previous performances.

The defeat of Mr. Cabot Lodge for Congress in Massachusetts is to be regretted because he would undoubtedly have made a good legislator; but it is to be rejoiced over because it is a distinct discouragement to his kind of politician—we mean the kind furnished by nature and art with every assistance in being better than they are, but who refuse it vigorously, and insist on being bad or mediocre. It is the special function of such men to make a good show of moral fibre at great crises, and when they fail there is really nothing left of them. It was undoubtedly due to Mr. Lodge's influence that Mr. Theodore Roosevelt threw away the admirable position he had acquired in the politics of this State last spring, by not only coming out for Blaine, but going back on Governor Cleveland. They put their heads together and thought they would show the theorists a wonderful "wrinkle" in the way of practicalness, and now they are both out in the cold, and their natural friends and allies are not sorry, and the real "practical men" are laughing at them. It is, however, never too late to mend. They may both find still, if they try, that

"The path of duty is the way to glory;
He that walks it, only thirsting
For the right, and learns to deaden
Love of self, before his journey closes
He shall find the stubborn thistle bursting
Into glossy purples, which outbredden
All voluptuous garden-roses."

Colonel T. W. Higginson writes to the *Woman's Journal* that the late campaign, disagreeable as it has been, has had certain educational advantages, particularly for women, in that it has afforded them a good opportunity to study the principles of evidence. We believe this is true, and that many women have availed themselves of the opportunity, but we regret to say that we have not perceived the slightest sign that the women who conduct the *Woman's Journal* have done so. They have written a great deal on the charges against Cleveland, apparently without ever having given them any examination whatever, while they have written nothing, or next to nothing, on the charges against Blaine, apparently without giving them any examination either. In fact, they avowed in one issue that it was enough for them that Senator Hoar and a young Bostonian named Edwin D. Mead did not believe these charges. It was an excellent chance for some of the female politicians to show their powers of analysis and comparison in the fields both of logic and ethics, but not one of them, so far as we know, used it. What they furnished to the canvass was a considerable quantity of cheap, and sometimes foolish, declamation about chastity.

Governor Cleveland's brief speech at Bridgeport on Thursday was an admirably concise presentation of the great issue at stake. "There should," he said, "be no mistake about this contest. It is an attempt to break down the barrier between the people of the United States and those that rule them." "Let us feel that the people are the rulers of the nation and not the office-holders, whose sole ambition and purpose is private gain. Let us also feel that if the people will give us the power of the government we hold from the people a sacred trust." Compare those patriotic sentences with Blaine's speech at the Gould-Field banquet. There was nothing about a sacred trust from the people in Blaine's speech, but figures piled upon figures to show the power of wealth. There was no promise of reduced taxation, of economical government, of simple administration in case of Republican success. "See how rich you have grown under the high-tariff policy—put me in office and you will grow richer still." Those were not the words, but they were the spirit of the whole speech.

The great parade of business men on Saturday in honor of Governor Cleveland was one of those things which speak for themselves, and which newspapers can neither belittle nor magnify. To say that it was the most tremendous political demonstration ever seen in this country is to tell only half of the story. It was not the numbers so much as the character of the turnout that made it grand, imposing, and prophetic. It was the parade not of political clubs but of trade organizations—of men who seldom show themselves in line of march, and very few of whom ever before walked three hours in a muddy street in order to testify their interest in the result of an election. The frequent halts in the movement of the mighty column, caused by its very greatness, were extremely trying to the patience of the participants, but very few fell out of line. Old and young stood by their colors hour after hour while the great army waited to get itself disentangled, filling up the intermissions with cheers and songs and "kind regards to Mrs. Fisher." It was a thrilling sight, and one ever to be remembered both by those who participated in and those who witnessed it. It was like the uprising of the people at the firing on Fort Sumter, and the reason for it was the same: it was born of a determination to vindicate American honor and to avert a national catastrophe.

The fifteen hundred lawyers, one-third of them Republicans, who marched in this procession, did this act, unexampled in the history of the New York bar, in order publicly to advise their clients:

1. That they had studied the Blaine letters.
2. That they were convinced as lawyers, on this evidence, that he had sold his official power and influence for railroad bonds.
3. That if President he would do the same thing.
4. That consequently the rights of every citizen, even the humblest, would be endangered by his election. The property and liberty of every man are subject to the decision of the courts. The President appoints the Federal judges. Blaine if elected will ap-

point four judges of the Supreme Court. Federal judges appoint the supervisors of elections. The worst political evil that can happen to their clients then, the lawyers reasoned, is the election of Blaine.

There are a few facts about the Gould-Field-Blaine banquet which have not been given the prominence which they deserve, though the mere fact of the banquet itself has had a profound effect upon the country. For the first time, at gatherings of this kind, the reporters of the newspapers were excluded. The speeches delivered by Mr. Evarts and Mr. Blaine were given out by the Associated Press. All descriptions of the scene came through this one source. When the speeches were over, and the banqueters repaired to the parlor, even the stenographers of the Associated Press were excluded, and the proceedings were conducted in entire secrecy. Why did the party of moral ideas put itself in a position of this kind six days before election? In the memorable language of the guest of the evening, "Wherever concealment is desirable, avoidance is advisable, and I do not know any better test to apply to the honor and fairness of a business transaction."

There have been a great many grotesque claims in this campaign, but none of them have risen to the height of calling Jay Gould, Cyrus Field, Russell Sage, Henry Clews, John Roach, "Wash" Connor, and the other men of that class at the dinner the friends of the workingmen. More audacious than the attitude of their candidate toward his own record was his appearance at such a banquet on the very eve of election! With the news columns of all our journals peppered over each day with the intelligence of manufactories shutting down and throwing thousands of laborers out of employment; with three-fifths of the iron furnaces of the country closed; with business of all kinds at a lower ebb than it has been for a quarter of a century, Mr. Blaine appears at a banquet, originated and managed by one of the most unpopular and unscrupulous monopolists in the country, and delivers a speech which is written all over in large letters: "Money," "money," "money." This extraordinary spectacle carried its own comment.

It was the services rendered by the wretched Ball in Buffalo in spreading filthy stories, we fancy, that suggested the extraordinary course of calling clergymen by advertisement to meet Blaine on his recent arrival in this city. No minister of standing or repute in this city responded to it. The two most prominent ones—the only ones, indeed, whose names were ever heard outside their own denominations—were ministers without congregations, editing religious newspapers. Those who came were obscure men, eager for the little brief notoriety to be got out of an interview with a prominent politician. Apart from Dr. Burchard's mistake, nothing came of the interview but materials for fresh unbelieving sneers at the separation between religion and morality. Blaine gained nothing from it, and the clergy suffered much, as it has suffered, indeed, from

the whole of its participation in this canvass. As Dr. Brown, rector of St. Paul's Episcopal Church in Buffalo, well said, in a letter to a friend about the doings of some of his clerical brethren in that city, "The ministers have poured more filth into the laps of this community than all their religious washings can cleanse for twenty years. You have no idea of the destruction of religious faith in this city." And what should we say if three or four hundred Catholic priests were called to meet a candidate on his travels and gave him their blessing, and he were to tell them that the high tariff was suggested and justified by the decrees of the Council of Trent?

As we go to press, the Constitutional Amendment voted on in this State appears to have been adopted. The importance of this amendment cannot be overestimated, and it was a fortunate circumstance that it has no partisan bearing or cast whatever. It is simply a prohibition against the creation of municipal debt beyond 10 per cent. of the assessed valuation of the real estate of the municipality affected. It provides that any debt created over and above that sum shall be absolutely null and void. In other words, it puts on the lender of money—the city bondholder—the onus of ascertaining whether the legal limit has been exceeded, in the same way that the mortgagee of real estate is bound to ascertain whether the title of the mortgaged premises is good. This is the only way to curtail municipal indebtedness. A similar provision was adopted by the people of Illinois in their Constitution in the year 1870. It has been productive of most wholesome results in that State, and especially in the city of Chicago, whose tax-eaters have been held in chains ever since, and whose municipal debt is now relatively one of the smallest in the United States or in the world, while the city itself has not suffered for the want of any really needful thing. The proposed amendment does not apply to the borrowing of money for securing supplies of water, but it puts such debts into a special class, by providing that bonds issued for this purpose shall not run more than twenty years, and that a special tax shall be levied sufficient to redeem them within that time.

The political excitement of the past two months has withdrawn attention in a great degree from financial and commercial interests of the highest importance. The large crops and the fall trade which were looked forward to in the month of August as brightening signs of a trade revival, have failed to realize the expectations founded upon them. On the other hand, an internecine war of railroad rates has been superadded to the other depressing facts, and has borne down the prices of leading investment securities to a lower range than they reached after the panic of 1873. The worst feature of the whole is that this difficulty does not admit of any immediate adjustment. The struggle between the West Shore and the New York Central, about which everything hinges, is a struggle of life and death. The New York Central people are convinced that the business tributary to the line will

not support the two roads, and that no compromises, no pools, no twisting or turning can yield net earnings sufficient for six parallel tracks between New York and Buffalo. Upon this belief they have rested their action. The West Shore people have met the common experience of new railways which run parallel with old ones, namely, that it takes time for the travelling and trading public to find out that there is any such new road in existence. Their cut of rates, they say, is in the nature of an advertisement. The public must be made to know that there is a West Shore Road, must be invited to travel on it, and to become generally acquainted with it. A railroad war grounded upon such ideas is not likely to be a brief one, or to end short of the exhaustion of one of the contestants.

The West Shore and New York Central fight carries its ravages necessarily into the ranks of all neighboring and competing lines. The Erie becomes a sufferer through no fault of its own. The Lackawanna is hurt in a less degree, and the Pennsylvania and the Baltimore and Ohio have a quarrel of their own, which adds to the difficulties of the situation. These difficulties are all comprised in the one overpowering fact, that more capital has been invested in trunk-line railways than the business will at present sustain. The "great boom" which began in 1879 was a misfortune to the country in many ways. It was born of the great crops of three successive years, which came in coincidence with an equal number of bad harvests in Europe. This remarkable occurrence brought a flood of new capital to the country which must needs find investment. Improvident and reckless undertakings were the consequences. These were not confined to railways, but extended to mines, mills, furnaces, and commercial adventure. Producing and transporting power was added to the fixed capital of the country on too great a scale for ordinary times and ordinary needs. Even this was not the worst. Men's habits were changed, and a scale of private expenditure was assumed which ordinary times and conditions would not justify. Liabilities were incurred which could only be met on condition that the abnormal prosperity resulting from good crops here and bad crops abroad should continue and be permanent. It was impossible that such a condition should last. Good seasons or bad are not permanent conditions of any part of the globe. The last two crops in Europe have relieved foreign countries from the necessity of taking the large quantities of our food products which they had taken in the period of the "boom," and also of paying the high prices which characterized that period. Time, which adjusts all things, will bring American trade back to its normal state of fair prosperity, but we must all be content to wait.

The judges of the City Court have decided the great Brewster-Hatch carriage case in favor of the defendant, Mr. Rufus Hatch, thus establishing the sound principle that it is illegal for carriage-builders to get or keep custom by bribing the coachmen of their customers.

Brewster & Company were in the habit, it seems, of paying Mr. Hatch's coachman a small *douceur* from time to time, and the man naturally often took his employer's landaulet there, and everything went on pleasantly until a difficulty arose about the settlement of a bill, which led to a disclosure of the facts. Brewster & Company did not deny them, but insisted that the gifts had been made in accordance with a binding custom; that this custom was of European origin; that it was a good custom, moreover, as it "induces a man to feel more pride in his carriage"; and, further, that it was "treat money." All these defences the learned court brushed aside, declaring that no such custom, if it existed, could be upheld in a court of justice; that it "is subversive of all principles of good faith and fair dealing between man and man. It tends to corrupt the morals of employees, and to make them unfaithful to those who are entitled to their disinterested fidelity. Such practices are certainly not consonant with honorable business principle, and they who indulge in them must suffer the consequences, however onerous they may appear to be."

The subject of dress reform has been revived by the *Pull Mall Gazette*, and Oscar Wilde has once more had his say on the subject. One of the points on which the reformers insist, and it is certainly as important as any, is that we need reform in hats. The hat of the period is, they say, not only not picturesque, but it is of no use for protection against wind and rain, and the drift of opinion in reform circles seems to be that what we need for this purpose is a wide-brimmed soft hat—something like what was formerly known as a "wideawake," or, better still, like those we see in Vandyke's pictures. It is a curious fact, however, that most of the hat reformers overlook a fact with regard to the protection of the head from wind and rain which makes the question of protection entirely different from what it was in the time of the cavaliers, and that is, the popularization of the umbrella. The umbrella has come into general use in England and the United States in the last hundred years, and the encyclopedias still give the name of the first man who made a practice of carrying an umbrella in the streets of London. There, as well as in the United States in the earlier and purer days of the Republic, it was considered a mark of great effeminacy to carry one. Since the introduction of whalebone the umbrella has come into universal use, and strange and wrong as it may seem to Mr. Oscar Wilde, it is on the umbrella, and not on the brim of his hat, that the modern man relies for protection against rain. As to wind, it ought to be obvious, the best means of protection is by no means a flap of felt which in a storm is beaten down over the eyes, but just exactly the stiff brim which we commonly use. In summer, protection from the sun requires undoubtedly a wide straw brim; and in hot countries a wide straw brim, or the pith helmet which has been invented as a substitute for it, is exactly what is worn. But waiving these points, the use of the umbrella is a great fact in the modern

history of dress which no real reformer can wholly overlook.

The trouble about the succession to the throne of the Duchy of Brunswick calls up some of the most bitter memories of the war of 1866. With the late Duke the eldest line of the great Guelph family, of which the royal family of England is only a branch, becomes extinct, and the next heir is the Duke of Cumberland, son of the late King of Hanover whom Bismarck deposed and whose dominions he annexed after the Austrian war. Bismarck also appropriated his private domains, and has been using the revenues ever since for what we call secret-service money, but what is called in Germany "the reptile fund," and devoted, it is said, to corrupting the press. The property itself, however, stands constantly ready to be turned over to the Duke of Cumberland, if he will relinquish his claims to the Hanoverian throne and accept the existing situation, but this he steadily refuses to do. He now claims the throne of Brunswick by hereditary right, but here again Bismarck has been too smart for him, for his jurists have given an opinion that the German Emperor, when appropriating the King of Hanover's dominions, appropriated also all his claims, inheritances, titles, and so forth, of a political nature, the throne of Brunswick among the rest. Anybody who does not agree with this opinion will argue in vain, inasmuch as the Pomeranian grenadiers are going to make it impregnable by occupying the Duchy. In fact, it is very hard to get the better of Bismarck either on the law or the facts.

The Czar's meeting with the two other Emperors, with all its promise of peace, order, and good will, has not interrupted for a moment the deadly struggle that has been going on for years between the Russian revolutionists and the Government. While Alexander III. was in Poland a military tribunal at Odessa, sitting with closed doors, sentenced Marya Kalyushnaya, a young lady who had attempted to imitate Vera Zasulich by shooting the colonel of gendarmes in that city, to twenty years' hard labor in a fortress. Soon after there were students' riots in Kiev, which had to be quelled by the military, and were followed by the arrest of several hundred of the participants, by incarceration and transportation to Siberia. Scarcely had the Emperor returned to the neighborhood of his capital when a conspirator, Minyakoff, was executed at St. Petersburg. The Kiev riots met with imitation in Moscow, and Minyakoff's death proved to be only a prelude to an act of public vengeance which has hardly a parallel in the history of Russian autocracy in this century. Sentenced to death, after a long trial, by a secret military tribunal at the fortress of Schlüsselburg, six army officers and two ladies were executed, while six of their fellow-conspirators escaped with a sentence of transportation to Siberia. Of the ladies one was a noblewoman, Von Wolkenstein, and the other the daughter of a priest. The telegraphic report adds the extraordinary piece of information that, while the people were not admitted to the spectacle, the two leading members of the Imperial Cabinet found it expedient to give *éclat* to it by their presence.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, October 29, to TUESDAY, November 5, 1884.
Inclusive.]

DOMESTIC.

THE election throughout the country on Tuesday was very exciting, and, at the time of writing this paragraph, the result is in doubt, the State of New York, with thirty-six electoral votes, being in the balance, with the possibility of a few thousand majority for either Cleveland or Blaine. If Cleveland wins New York his election is assured; if he loses it, he may be elected by Wisconsin, California, Indiana, if Virginia and West Virginia go Democratic. In the following table of the electoral vote those States are classed as doubtful which are claimed by both sides, with no positive returns to settle the matter. Of these West Virginia and Virginia are almost certain to have voted for Cleveland, while the chances are altogether in favor of his getting others of the "doubtful" votes.

CLEVELAND.		BLAINE.	
Alabama.....	10	Colorado.....	3
Arkansas.....	7	Iowa.....	13
Connecticut.....	6	Kansas.....	9
Delaware.....	3	Maine.....	6
Florida.....	4	Massachusetts.....	14
Georgia.....	12	Minnesota.....	7
Indiana.....	15	Nebraska.....	5
Kentucky.....	13	Ohio.....	23
Louisiana.....	8	Pennsylvania.....	30
Maryland.....	8	Rhode Island.....	4
Mississippi.....	9	Vermont.....	4
Missouri.....	16		
New Jersey.....	9		118
North Carolina.....	11		
South Carolina.....	9		
Tennessee.....	12		
Texas.....	13		
New Hampshire.....	4		
	169		

DOUBTFUL.		
California.....	8	Virginia..... 12
Illinois.....	22	Wisconsin..... 11
Michigan.....	13	West Virginia..... 6
Nevada.....	3	
New York.....	36	114
Oregon.....	3	

The election in New York State was remarkable for the great gains in Brooklyn for Cleveland due to the Independent vote. Cleveland's majority was 15,587. In New York city it was 42,786. There are strong indications that Tammany was false to the Democratic ticket, as, notwithstanding the strong Independent vote, Cleveland's majority in this city was not equal to Hancock's. The new Assembly of this State will consist of 74 Republicans and 54 Democrats. As the Senate (holding over) has a Republican majority of 6, this gives a Republican majority on joint ballot of 36. In this city William R. Grace and the whole County Democracy and Citizens' ticket were elected by about 10,000 plurality.

The next National House of Representatives will probably stand about 185 Democrats to 140 Republicans.

Mr. Blaine received a number of the clergy of New York and vicinity at the Fifth Avenue Hotel on Wednesday morning. There were few well-known clergymen among them. Rev. Dr. Burchard made an address to Mr. Blaine in which he said: "We are Republicans, and don't propose to leave our party and identify ourselves with the party whose antecedents have been *rum*, *Romanism*, and *rebellion*. We are loyal to our flag, we are loyal to you." The slur at Romanism excited considerable indignation, even among Blaine organs. In the afternoon the Blaine business men paraded to the number of 16,000. The column started at the Bowling Green and was reviewed by Mr. Blaine at the foot of the Worth monument in Madison Square. About 200 persons attended the dinner given to Mr. Blaine at Delmonico's in the evening. The guest of the evening was escorted to his place by Cyrus W. Field and William M. Everts, who presided. Among the guests were Jay Gould, Russell Sage, Washington E. Connor, and John Roach.

Mr. Blaine visited Brooklyn on Thursday. He held a reception at the Mansion House at 2 o'clock, and at the Academy of Music a

ladies' reception, later in the afternoon. A mass meeting was held in the evening. The rain interfered with the day's ceremonies.

Mr. Blaine reviewed a procession of 30,000 men near the Worth monument in Madison Square on Friday evening.

Governor Cleveland visited New Haven on Thursday and was received by a great crowd.

Governor Cleveland, on Saturday afternoon, reviewed an immense procession in this city. The column moved from the Battery to Madison Square, and about 40,000 men were in line. It was one of the largest day-parades ever seen in this city.

Carl Schurz and Henry Ward Beecher addressed a large meeting at the lower end of Wall Street on Friday afternoon, under the auspices of the Down-Town Merchants' Cleveland Club.

Congressman J. S. Barbour, Chairman of the Democratic State Committee of Virginia, telegraphed to Washington on Wednesday from Alexandria asking the Democrats to raise all the money they could. He said that he had trustworthy information that Mahone had secured a large campaign fund from the National Committee.

About 200 Republicans, principally negroes, entered Loreauville, La., on Saturday, cheering in the wildest manner and using abusive language in regard to the local Democratic candidates. Fifteen of the Democrats protested and two of them were immediately killed, without apparent provocation. A general fight ensued in which sixteen negroes were killed.

Mr. Hugh McCulloch was formally qualified as Secretary of the Treasury on Friday morning.

The decrease of the public debt during October was \$8,307,192.

Charles J. Faulkner, United States Minister to France in 1860, died near Martinsburg, W. Va., on Saturday.

The report of the Third Auditor of the United States Treasury for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1884, shows that there were 16,766 accounts, involving \$92,674,093, settled during the year, and that there remain unsettled 37,487 accounts, involving \$94,067,483.

A decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of the United States on Monday afternoon in another of the long series of cases which have arisen out of the adoption of the Fourteenth and Fifteenth Amendments to the Constitution. The present case, that of John Elk vs. Charles Wilkins, and which comes from the District of Nebraska, is a suit brought by an Indian against the Registrar of one of the wards of Omaha for refusing to register him as a qualified voter therein. The questions presented are whether the plaintiff in error is a citizen of the United States, and whether he has been denied any right guaranteed him by the Fifteenth Amendment to the Federal Constitution. The court, in a long and elaborate opinion by Justice Gray, holds (first) that an Indian who is born a member of one of the tribes within the United States, which still exists and is recognized as a tribe by the Government, and who has voluntarily separated himself from his tribe, and taken up his residence among the white citizens of a State, but who has not been naturalized, or taxed, or recognized as a citizen either by the United States or by the State, is not a citizen of the United States within the meaning of the first section of the Fourteenth Amendment; second, that the plaintiff in error, not being a citizen of the United States under the Fourteenth Amendment, has been deprived of no right secured by the Fifteenth Amendment, and cannot maintain this action. Justice Harlan read a long dissenting opinion in behalf of Justice Woods and himself.

On Saturday the members of the Prime Meridian Congress, which has been in session for the past month in Washington, met for the

last time and adjourned *sine die*. Their work was substantially completed two weeks ago, and the last meetings have been entirely formal. They express the belief that the meridian selected by the majority will ultimately be universally adopted.

William Jones, indicted on November 25, 1881, for an assault and battery with intent to kill Charles J. Guiteau on the 19th of the same month, was acquitted on Monday, at Washington.

The steamer *Rhein* reached New York on Friday. She brought the passengers and crew of the steamer *Maasdam*, from Rotterdam for New York, which was burned at sea on October 24. The fire was started by a lamp placed near a leaking petroleum tank. The ship was abandoned at 4 p. m. on October 24, and five hours later everybody was rescued from the boats by the *Rhein*. The steamer was valued at \$200,000. Nothing was saved by passengers or crew.

The eminent Italian actress, Mme. Adelaide Ristori-Grillo, with her husband, the Marquis del Grillo, and her son and daughter, arrived in New York by the *St. Germain* on Thursday morning. Her theatrical tour will begin in Philadelphia on November 10. She will appear in this city on December 22. The repertory will consist of "Mary Stuart," "Marie Antoinette," "Elizabeth," and "Macbeth."

The well-known tenor, Pasquino Brignoli, died on Thursday afternoon at the Everett House, in this city, after a sickness of about two months. He was born in Naples about fifty-seven years ago, and made his first appearance in this city in the Academy of Music in 1855 in "Lucia." Since that time he has been constantly before the American public. In earlier days his voice was of most uncommon sweetness, with plenty of range, and the wide popularity he then won never entirely deserted him. He was a man of many eccentricities, but his excellent social qualities gained him many warm friendships.

Admiral Farragut's widow died in this city, on Friday, at the age of 60.

Francis Caswell Bowman, a well-known lawyer of this city, died on Thursday. He was an enthusiastic lover of music, and was at one time musical editor of the *Evening Post*. For seventeen years he has filled that position on the *Sun*. He wrote extensively for magazines and periodicals.

Rev. Dr. Paret was on Thursday, after a long contest, elected Bishop Pinkney's successor by the Protestant Episcopal Convention at Baltimore.

FOREIGN.

The motion granting precedence to the Franchise Bill was passed by the House of Commons on Thursday. The Radicals are combining to oppose the Government compromise with the Lords. They aim at the abolition of that body.

Lord Randolph Churchill, in the House of Commons on Thursday, moved his amendment to the address in reply to the Queen's speech, censuring the Right Hon. Joseph Chamberlain, President of the Board of Trade, for "inciting by his speeches interference with the freedom of political discussion, and justifying riot and disorders." Mr. Chamberlain said he did not believe the stories that the Liberals had hired ruffians to upset the Conservative meeting at Birmingham. He could not have prevented a counter demonstration, and would not if he could. He deeply regretted the annoyance suffered by Sir Stafford Northcote, who was a generous opponent. The amendment was rejected after an embittered debate, the vote standing 178 to 214. The Parnellites voted with the minority.

In the House of Commons, on Friday evening, an amendment to the address regretting that the speech from the throne contained no reference to the agricultural and commercial

depression of the country was rejected, 86 to 67.

In consequence of a statement made in the House of Commons by Lord Edmond Fitzmaurice, Under Secretary for Foreign Affairs, that neutrals must regard the French blockade of Formosa as a notification of the existence of a state of war between France and China, it is expected that the British ports will be closed to transports taking French troops to China.

The Duke of Connaught will return from India next March. He will come by way of San Francisco.

Frederick J. Allen, Vice-President of the Young Ireland Society, was arrested in Dublin on Sunday night on a charge of treason-felony, and was brought into court on Monday and arraigned. He was remanded to jail to await trial. Evidence was produced showing that he wrote a letter to the headquarters of the Fenians in Paris, containing an account of the receipts of cash for Fenian purposes, and an account of the Avengers' expenses. Among the Avengers the names of Joe Mullet and Patrick Malloy appeared. The letter likewise detailed the quantity of arms belonging to the various Fenian Centres in Ireland, and the numbers of men composing them. At Kilkenny, it is said, there were 332 members, at Dublin 650, and at Louth 503.

Cornwall and Kirwan, the Dublin Castle officials charged with unnatural crimes, have been acquitted.

The first of a series of meetings in behalf of the Tichborne claimant was held in London on Wednesday night, and was enthusiastic in his support.

A terrible panic occurred on Saturday at the Star Theatre, Glasgow. Two thousand people were present. About nine o'clock a drunken man raised a false alarm of fire. Instantly the audience rushed for the doors. The crowd from the pit met the crowd from the gallery and a fearful block ensued. Officers of the theatre and police were powerless. When the theatre was finally cleared, sixteen corpses were found on the stairs leading from the gallery, and twelve persons were badly injured.

The London *Daily News* on Tuesday, in a leader devoted to the American political contest, said: "The Republicans have much in their favor. They are in power, they have governed the republic for twenty-three years, they settled the slavery question forever, and they have most heroic recollections in the Northern and Western States associated with their name. But the Republican party has done its work, and has fallen into vices which long ascendancy produces in all political parties. It has become more anxious to retain office than to perform any great national service. It has a bad candidate in Mr. Blaine, who comes forward as the representative of the party machine. A Democratic victory no longer means the return of Southern men to a monopoly of power. The old sectional jealousies are cold beyond the power of warming to new life. The old issues between Republicans and Democrats have lost their force. New issues are slowly replacing them."

Sir Moses Montefiore's illness, consequent upon his exertions at the recent centennial celebration, is grave.

The Paris *Morning News* on Sunday printed a sensational despatch from Cairo reporting the capture of General Gordon by the Mahdi, as follows: "The Mahdi, in the beginning of September, hearing of the advance of the British forces, made a supreme effort to reduce Khartum, which place at the end of September was surrounded by 150,000 rebels. The supplies failing, the garrison began to waver. A deputation of officers complained bitterly to General Gordon that they had been deceived by a promise of British assistance, and they accused him of aiding in the deception. The deputation also demanded that a retreat be made to Dongola, and threatened that

if this action were not taken they would join the Mahdi. General Gordon thereupon consented to the plan proposed. Meanwhile a panic arose, and 8,000 soldiers and civilians deserted in a body. Two thousand men remained faithful, and embarked with General Gordon. The rebels were advised of what had occurred, and harassed the retreat to Shendy, where masses of rebels provided with artillery disabled the flotilla. Only Colonel Stewart's vessel succeeded in passing Berber, and soon afterward it was wrecked. The remainder of the flotilla was obliged to return southward, and on reaching Shendy the entire force was captured. About October 5 General Gordon was sent, under a strong escort, to the Mahdi's camp, where he is now a close prisoner." The British Foreign Office discredited this despatch, and there was no confirmation of it on Monday.

The London *Times's* Alexandria correspondent states that upon careful inquiry he learns that the report of the fall of Khartum originated from the following source, and gives it for what it is worth: A French merchant, formerly the French Consul at Khartum, learned from messengers who lately arrived from Khartum that General Gordon was in want of provisions and forced a sortie. He reached Berber only. Colonel Stewart was able to push further north, and General Gordon started to return to Khartum, and when near Shendy he learned that Khartum had been handed over to the rebels. General Gordon found himself unable to retire or advance and was killed there. General Wolseley arrived on Monday at Dongola, where he held a conference with the Mudir.

A despatch received on Monday from Dongola by Reuter's Telegram Company made no mention of the reported fall of Khartum. It said, however, that the Mahdi at last accounts was collecting his forces around Khartum, and had summoned General Gordon to surrender. It declared that a large force of rebels was at Berber, and that the rebels had possession of the wells on the caravan route between Debbeh and Khartum.

General Lord Wolseley on Tuesday telegraphed that the reports brought in by the natives indicate that General Gordon is still in possession of Khartum.

General Wolseley has been empowered to appoint the Mudir of Dongola as Provisional Governor of the Province of the Sudan, under the nominal suzerainty of the Khedive of Egypt. The terms of the agreement are to be subject to revision after the expiration of five years.

Lord Northbrook, who has returned to London from Egypt, whither he was sent by the Government as special High Commissioner to gain information concerning the state of the Egyptian administration, recommends that England pay the Alexandria indemnity, taking the sinking fund as security.

Admiral Courbet has forwarded a despatch to the French Minister of Marine, in which he describes in the darkest colors the sanitary condition of his men, and expresses a fear that he will be compelled to abandon the attempt to occupy Tamsui. There are reports that a severe type of cholera is spreading through the squadron.

An official despatch from Gen. Brière de Lisle, dated Hanoi, October 27, says: "The garrison of Tuyen-Quang repulsed several attacks of the Chinese on the 14th and 19th instants without loss. The enemy withdrew discouraged."

It is reported that Japan has offered to act as mediator between China and France.

Chinese advices state that the Empress of China has offered half her jewels for the defence of the Empire against the French invasion.

Chinese advices state that the blocking of the Woosung River, on which Shanghai stands,

and the massing of troops in the vicinity of Shanghai and Peking, are still going on.

Five thousand three hundred troops to reinforce the French army in Tonquin will start on or before November 15. A second instalment will also start a fortnight later.

An agitation is in progress in Paris against the price of bread. A meeting of bakers was held on Wednesday to consider the request of the Prefect that they should reduce the price. They refused by a vote of 341 to 204 to accede to this.

Elections for members of the German Reichstag, held on October 28, resulted as follows: Conservatives 69, Centre 95, Imperials 24, Nationals 35, German Liberals 31, Poles 16, Volkspartei 2, Alsations 14, Guelphs 3, Socialists 10, including Liebknecht. Ninety-seven second ballots will be necessary. It is believed that ten more Socialists will be elected. There was a great decline in the Liberal, and increase of the Socialist vote. The Anti-Jewish party are much elated.

The Crown Prince of Germany has become Regent of Brunswick. The title of Duke has been dropped. The Prince's eldest son will succeed to the Regency when his father becomes Emperor of Germany. The Duke of Cumberland will reside in England. The Emperor of Austria has notified him that his residence in that country is not agreeable to the Austrian Government, as they desire not to give offence to Germany. The London *Truth* says that Germany offered the Brunswick succession to the Duke of Cambridge and he refused it.

Gustav Reichardt, the composer of the music to which the famous song "Was ist des Deutschen Vaterland?" is set, is dead. Reichardt's compositions number only thirty-six, mostly popular songs. He was born in 1797 in Pomerania, studied theology at first, but soon abandoned it for the profession of music teacher and director in Berlin. He gave music lessons to the Crown Prince.

Professor Nordenskjöld, the Arctic explorer, is preparing to undertake an expedition to the South Pole.

M. de Lesseps will start for Panama early in February. The Secretary of the Panama Canal Company ridicules the idea that a French protectorate will be established over Panama.

At a meeting of the Spanish Cabinet on Thursday, presided over by King Alfonso, the Minister of Foreign Affairs submitted for consideration the conditions agreed upon between United States Minister Foster and the Spanish Commissioner for a special treaty of commerce with America. This treaty would be the starting point for a new colonial and tariff policy in the Spanish West Indies. It would open the Castilian colonies to American competition against Spanish imports, but it would also admit Cuba and Porto Rico into the Zollverein which America is gradually forming with Mexico and the other Spanish-speaking countries around the Gulf of Mexico. The special Hispano-American Convention stipulates that its advantages shall apply only to trade between the United States and Cuba and Porto Rico, which is carried on under the American and the Spanish flags respectively. By its terms America will admit sugars, molasses, and raw tobacco free of all duty, and the duty on other articles imported from the West Indies will be reduced. Spain will place American flour and cereals imported into her colonies upon the same footing as those imported from Spain, and will make a large reduction in the duties on cattle, salt, fresh fish, and all but a very few American manufactured goods. Spain will also suppress the consular tonnage duties which are now levied at American ports, and promises further to reform the Custom-house, harbor, and sanitary regulations and fines in her colonies. The convention is likely to meet with much opposition in the Cortes.

The Montreal Carnival has been finally fixed for the week beginning January 26, 1885.

THE LESSONS OF THE ELECTION.

THE result of the election, considering the amount of opposition and half-hearted support which Cleveland has received from the worst portion of his own party, must be regarded as in a very great degree the work of the best portion of the Republican party. There has been nothing more pitiful in American political history than the reliance during the last month of the canvass of the Republican managers on their gains among the more ignorant Irish, to make up for the loss of the flower of their own youth and a very considerable part of their wisest and most honored veterans. But they would have it so. They would insist upon it that whatever was good enough for "the boys" in the gallery of the Convention at Chicago, would do for the conscientious, scrupulous, and high-minded men all over the country, and that ridicule and insult were the best medicine for their qualms.

It is now certain that the experiment of imposing a tainted man on the voters will not be tried again in our time. The folly of that has been taught even to the most purblind among Republican politicians, and, indeed, to politicians of both parties. What the future may have in store nobody knows, but it is clear that as yet the American people are not ready to put in high office a man who cannot answer charges against his official integrity. The election of Cleveland is notice to all jobbers, contractors, and speculators that, great as their luck has hitherto been, their day has not yet come; that this Government does not exist simply for the security of ill-gotten gains, or for the fortification of great corporations against public opinion and the law, or to make profits the one test of national success. Honesty, and fair dealing, and truthfulness are still to receive official recognition, as signs and conditions of American prosperity.

To that large body of Republicans who voted for Blaine, believing all that was said against his integrity, making no attempt to disguise the fact that they accepted him only through sheer fear of the consequences of a Democratic administration, we have no word of reproach to utter. It may sometimes be the best policy to make even a chief of brigands ruler of a State, because its safety, through any instrumentality, has to be the first concern of every civilized man. But it is in no taunting spirit that we offer them to-day our congratulations on what we believe firmly they will themselves a year hence, if they do not now, acknowledge to be their deliverance from a most mischievous political superstition. Good government was not possible as long as so large and intelligent a class of the community as they are, gave the party in power a support based not on the facts of to-day, but on the facts of twenty years ago, and completely independent of the manner in which the public business is now transacted. This state of mind on the part of so considerable a body of voters of course put a premium on corruption and malfeasance, and offered the depraved element in politics an opportunity of pushing its schemes, of which it has only too fully availed itself.

That uncontrolled power debauches rapidly is true of the best of men; it is tenfold more true of the best of parties. Parties are, no more than individuals, prone to be good if nobody expects them to be, and a party which finds that it is safe from punishment, if not from criticism, rapidly becomes a worse enemy of the state than any one tyrant can ever be. Moreover, it is an essential condition of party government in a free state that there shall always stand ready one party to be put in whenever another deserves to be turned out of office. A party in power for which there is no substitute in case of misbehavior, is not a party at all, but an oligarchy, and most probably a corrupt one. The Democratic party was deprived in Republican eyes of its proper function by the war. To have it restored as it has been to its place, as a possible alternative, in case of Republican excesses or shortcomings, is a great gain for everybody, and most of all for Republicans themselves.

Moreover, fanaticism, however valuable it may be in times of great peril, has no proper part in the ordinary work of government. Fanaticism is always unreasoning, and if there be anything in human affairs which more than all else needs reason, it is government by public opinion. Now the state of mind of a large body of Republicans about the Democrats has for many years been fanatical, unreasoning, and therefore most mischievous. The opinion on which a great many Republicans have for years based their political action, and base it now, is that the Democrats, numbering about half the voting population, are enemies of the Government, and unfit, either through wickedness or infirmity, to take charge of it. Of course, the value of a man as a citizen of a free state, who comes to the discussion of public questions under the influence of a feeling of this sort about half of his countrymen, must be greatly diminished. He can only be half an American and only half a patriot who regards one-half of his fellow-citizens with fear or contempt. And what foreign enemy of American institutions, we would ask, could desire more triumphant support for his belief in their complete failure, than the avowal by half the American people that, in the first century of the Republic, the other half had become too depraved or ignorant to be intrusted either with the making or enforcing of the laws? Relief from this deadly nightmare is a great gain for Republicans as well as for the country, and Cleveland's election will give it. Honest Republicans will acknowledge, we are sure, a year hence, that they have been for the past ten years going through the agonies of a man hanging from a window-sill by his fingers, and fancying he had an abyss beneath him, when his toes were only a foot from the ground, and he had only to let go in order to be happy. The worst of this situation was that it was one out of which it was apparently impossible to reason people. As long as the Democrats bore the name they bore during the war, no amount of argumentation would satisfy a large body of Republicans that they were not still rebels and traitors. There was nothing left for it at the end of twenty years but to try them.

M. LAVELEYE ON THE RIGHTS OF WAR.

M. EMILE LAVELEYE has published in a recent number of the *Pall Mall Gazette* an interesting article on the proposal of the International Law Reformers to abolish the right of maritime capture. The proposal is an old one, and in a certain sense has the authority of the United States on its side. The Powers which concluded the Treaty of Paris in 1856 united in a declaration—which is often confounded with the Treaty itself—by the first article of which "privateering is and remains abolished." The United States were invited to become a party to it, but Mr. Marcy, who was then Secretary of State, believing, as most Americans then believed, that letters of marque were, for a country like ours, having a small navy, a necessary weapon in case of a foreign war, made a counter proposition that we would agree to place privateering under "the ban of the law of nations," provided the other Powers would agree to the exemption of all private property from maritime capture. The subsequent history of this proposal is rather curious, for it illustrates how binding a nation's self-interest is in matters of international law. At the time of Mr. Marcy's proposal we were a great commercial nation, traditionally a neutral. Therefore whatever we gave up in abolishing privateering could be compensated for by establishing the principle that all commerce should be forever free from maritime injury. When the Rebellion broke out in 1861, we became a belligerent, and greatly feared Confederate letters of marque; accordingly Mr. Seward began to press for the abolition of privateering, though nothing further was heard about general exemption from maritime capture. But England and France had already recognized the Confederacy as a belligerent, and consequently nothing could be done, though they kindly offered to sign a convention against privateering, provided that it should not have any bearing on the internal troubles then prevailing in the United States. The matter was dropped; our commerce was destroyed by the cruisers of the Confederacy, we became in a few years a great belligerent instead of a neutral power, and the close of the war found us in the *Alabama* convention ready to do our utmost to strengthen belligerent as against neutral rights. Privateering had ceased to be of any interest to us, and the subject which Mr. Marcy undertook to couple with it near the close of the war has been relegated to the forum of volunteer agitation for the reform of international law.

The Institute of International Law has accordingly brought forward Mr. Marcy's old proposition to abolish the right of maritime capture, and M. Laveleye advances various reasons for desiring to see it incorporated into the law of nations. He, however, once more insists on considering it in connection with privateering, though he does not absolutely say that the two are interdependent, and thus introduces an unnecessary and unfortunate confusion into the subject. The arguments which have led to the abolition of privateering by so many of the leading nations of the civilized world are chiefly connected with the irregular

and predatory character of the warfare carried on by privateersmen. The chief motive of a privateersman is plunder—the motive, in fact, of a pirate. This is a motive which has such a debasing and degrading effect that it is excluded, so far as possible, from civilized warfare. Again, the control over the crew is slight, the responsibility very remote, and the risk of barbarity and inhumanity almost as great as in mediæval private war. These are the reasons urged by such writers as Franklin, Kent, Wharton, and Woolsey for the abolition of letters of marque, and that they constitute excellent arguments against privateering no one will deny.

What are the arguments against the abolition of maritime capture? M. Laveleye's statements of them show that they rest not merely on the consideration—of which everybody will admit the force—that persons engaged in peaceful pursuits should be spared the horrors of war as far as possible, but on a wholly new conception of the nature of war itself. He says:

"There are two different sorts of warfare, or rather two different conceptions of it. According to the first, war is a state of conflict between two or more nations, not only army against army, but citizen against citizen, and it is perfectly admissible that individuals of the contending countries should be allowed to employ all means to do each other the utmost possible harm. According to the second, the state of warfare only exists between the armies, who are expected to respect the life and property of all peaceful inhabitants of the enemy's land. The first of these systems prevailed in ancient times and in the Middle Ages; Louvois applied it when he ordered the devastation of the Palatinate. The barbarous hordes were but putting it into practice when they set fire to dwellings and fields on their march through an enemy's country, slaying all the vanquished or reducing them to a state of slavery. This is the principle England is now defending by maintaining the right of capture, or, in case of necessity, the burning of private property at sea. At the present time the second of these theories is the one which is admitted by all civilized lands."

This admission "by all civilized lands," however, really means, not an admission by the governments of civilized lands, but chiefly by the law reformers in civilized lands who agree with M. Laveleye. He gives only one instance, and that rather an unfortunate one, of the adoption by a sovereign of the new theory—the proclamation issued by the King of Prussia in 1870 that he was making war "against soldiers, not against French citizens," and that the latter would "continue to enjoy perfect security, both as regards their persons and their possessions, so long as they do not deprive me of the right of protecting them by engaging in any enterprise hostile to the German troops." This proclamation did not prevent the German army from levying "requisitions" on non-combatants whenever they found it necessary. M. Laveleye meets this difficulty by saying that requisitions are for the purposes of providing sustenance for an army and not to injure the enemy, and thus differ from maritime capture. But can there be any better way of injuring an enemy than by levying a tax on his industry and wealth for the support of an invading army? Moreover, the invader is not bound to render an account either to the enemy or to neutral nations of what he does with the money, and practically it all goes to make his warfare more efficient and deadly. But this is the object of

maritime capture. Here, therefore, M. Laveleye's argument seems very weak.

But is there not an inherent weakness in the theory on which it is founded? This theory makes a war simply a duel between two armies, in which the nation which has the worst army goes to the wall and surrenders. But we know that with commercial nations the main support of the armies they call into the field is their wealth and commerce, internal and external. It is difficult to see any inherent distinction between bombarding a wealthy town because it will not surrender and capturing a ship at sea, or between levying a requisition on a number of defenceless inhabitants and sinking or burning a merchant vessel. The fact is that the theory of M. Laveleye is thus far mere theory, and ought to be advocated as such. It has not been adopted by any leading nation, least of all France, a country which is now laying waste defenceless cities in China as a "form of negotiation" for the purpose of preventing war. If this can be done in a state of profound peace, it will be very difficult for France, at least, to argue that it may not be done in time of actual war. England thus far seems to be opposed to the new theory for excellent reasons, and the United States will hardly be likely to take much interest in the matter. Germany and Russia remain; but Germany, if not really "estopped," as the lawyers say, by her war of 1870, is at least placed in an awkward position by it.

FRIEDRICH KAPP.

THERE are natures whose bearing on history is never fully understood by the teacher or by the student of history. The secret of it is their personal influence, which dies with them, and cannot be related or reproduced. Rufus Choate was of this description. So was Friedrich Kapp. He gave a force to what may be called the German impetus of this country which it had never had without him.

His father was teacher at the Gymnasium at Hamm, a position half way between a schoolmaster and a professor. After his retirement he engaged in authorship, and even late in life started a periodical on educational subjects. His son had not in his manners a trace of the fragment of society from which he came. Every one knew, from an hour's conversation with him, that he had been a student at a university, but no one could divine from what sort of a family he had gone there. Kapp studied at Heidelberg and at one other university—was it Berlin, or Goettingen, or Bonn?—but Heidelberg was the one about which he principally talked; where he had formed his college friendships; where the professors made the greatest impression upon him. Mittermaier was one of these. When the Revolution broke out in Germany he was twenty-four years old. He was at Frankfurt-on-the-Main for much of the time that the Parliament sat there, and particularly during the outbreak in which General Auerswald and Prince Lichnowsky lost their lives. The first portion of his exile was passed in Switzerland, of which he cherished many recollections, and where we last saw him alive this very year.

In New York, his first law firm was that of Zitz, Kapp & Froebel. Mr. Zitz, the Nestor of the bar of Mayence, had the expectation of a large business in New York, to the attainment of which his deafness was the principal obstacle. At this point Mr. Kapp was to come to his relief. Their coöperation continued for twenty years. As a

negotiator, or, as he called himself, broker-in-law, Kapp was inimitable. He had no especial liking for the law before he came here, nor can he be said to have acquired it afterward. There was not life enough in it to captivate his fancy. It is a privilege of common-law countries to produce combinations of political enthusiasm and of admiration for the civil law in one and the same person. Kapp had a turn, not generally known, for novel-writing. He was struck with the idea of translating Dickens into American, so to speak—of writing something which should depict American life in all its varieties, in the same manner that Dickens delineated the life of the English people. The idea occupied much of his reflections and talk; the success of his historical works probably drew off his attention from it.

Politics was, of course, his principal occupation so far as revealed in his intercourse with others. Those whose recollection does not go back to the fifties cannot imagine the attraction of the politics of that time to a young and ardent mind. Both here and in Europe the springs were unloosed, and the waters of heaven seemed to pour down upon the favored field. And the nature of the battle differed so much on the two sides of the Atlantic as materially to add to the charm. The Wilmot Proviso was the engrossing topic about the time of Kapp's arrival. The force of argument was all on the Free-Soil side; the Hunkers had ceased to offer anything but a feeble contention. A German, moreover, with any ideal tendency, was bound to see American politics wholly on its ideal side. The dicker and thimble-rigging were concealed from him, and the actors in the game were to him as high-strung as their speeches and their resolutions. We seem to remember that Kapp edited a paper (the name of which has escaped us), and that as his business grew it went out of his hands. It was not, however, by writing that he attained the position he held in New York, and which has not been held by any other person. Whatever scheme was afoot among Germans, he was consulted. It mattered not whether it was among the down-town bankers, or the up-town journeymen—whatever was planned required his signature to make it effective. A real Jove, he smiled, and all was sunshine; he frowned, and all was storm. Auerbach has introduced him into his novel, 'The Villa on the Rhine,' not as a character, but as a figure, under the title of the Citizen of Two Worlds. This sobriquet recalls him to us as we saw him one afternoon leaning out of his office window, the wind catching his locks and playing with them. There was something extremely youthful in his appearance as well as his manner. "He is a good boy," said a friend, who saw him at the same time. There was a ring of welcome in his voice, and a tone of irresistible good-humor in the manner in which he coaxed you to sit down and recount your wants or wishes—grievances he called them. He seemed fully to understand every man the first time he met him, and we never knew him to err in the prompt judgment he passed on individuals and on measures. Toward the end of his life here, he visibly tired of the proceedings of public meetings, of which previously he must have been fond—the resolutions and motions, considerations, reconsiderations, organizations, and parliamentary jargon in general. But he did not allow this new state of feeling to take him out of the measures to which he already stood committed.

His love of wine was a material part of his patriotism. He loved the wine of his own country, courted it, and petted it. He knew the hill-sides from which it came, and descanted their praises whenever it was on the board. Every brand was entwined with recollections, which oozed from him as he drank it. He lived well, in

every sense. He had a princely tendency to adorn his household with pretty things of all kinds. The engravings in his parlors were very fine. We particularly remember a something which looked like a leather receptacle for United States bonds, set in silver, which he was accustomed to open with mock-heroic solemnity when you were taking leave of him at night, and extract therefrom a beautifully chased decanter, with glasses to match, from which we were to take the stirrup cup.

He was a great traveller. He was an expert in discovering how the pieces of business entrusted to him made it necessary for him to visit distant parts of the country; and in the course of these journeys we have frequently heard him declare that there was, at that time, not a State of the Union which he had not visited. In one of his books he makes the same remark, and adds that the finest of all the States is Texas. His experiences there among a heroic non-slaveholding band of German cotton growers, near San Antonio, had given him a deep insight into the tyranny of the slave power, and a theory of what must be done to meet its steady advance. His earliest efforts socially in the free States were in company with his friend Frederick Law Olmsted, to obtain sympathy and pecuniary aid for his countrymen in Texas. In this he succeeded, and the beneficiaries afterward became of much consequence in the struggle with secession. In like manner he and Brace and Norton and others promoted an important emigration of German vine-growers to Missouri, under the leadership of Mr. Frederick Münch, and these likewise had much to do with retaining that State on the side of the Union, and in furnishing German soldiers for the Federal army. Kapp's labors for the Free-Soil and early Republican party were incessant, and no German, except his friend, Mr. Schurz, did more to unite the German Americans in upholding the cause of resistance to slavery.

Kapp was as familiar with all the Germans of Texas as if he had been one of them. To Missouri, also, he frequently went, and kept up the remembrances of Herman and Far West. It was one of these trips that made him acquainted with General Fremont, and had nearly carried him off to the Pacific. On one of his Southern journeys he was seized with the yellow fever, and for five or six hours was jolted about in a car when in the height of the attack, after which he was nursed for a long time by a negro woman—we believe in Savannah, Ga. He also made two visits to Cuba, during which he spent something like a month at a plantation, which, he was in the habit of saying, was the most agreeable time he had spent in his life. When, at the end of it, he said to his host that he positively must go, the latter begged him to be candid and say wherein he had offended him.

Kapp went to Europe in 1859, and some time in 1865, and finally in 1870. In 1859 he returned with the report that people would cross-question him to discover whether he intended to stay there, and, when they were satisfied he would not, were profuse in their expressions of welcome to him as a visitor. In 1865 he generally introduced himself to his German friends by asking whether they had not a secretary's position for him, and on his return the plan was ready in his head to re-migrate in 1870. Whether it would have been carried out if the wars of 1866 and 1870 had not occurred cannot be known.

He was a member of the Board of Emigration from 1867 to 1870. This service engrossed his attention more and more. He would frequently go on board the ships, and come back with stories of what he had encountered. He would enlist the emigrants in conversation, and, as soon as he had made them talk, would ask them what it was

that induced them to quit their native country. The answer was never in set terms, "The Prussian Constitution," but still so nearly in substance, that he would be always worried into repeating the attempt on another subject. Once he had met a Mecklenburg woman, a matron, with evidently a clearer head than other peasant women. (He imitated her Low-German dialect to perfection.) She was frightened at his questions about the motive of her emigration, thinking it was dictated by some regulation of the service, and said: "Nu, ich wollte mine Verhältnisse verbeteren; dat darf man doch" ("I wanted to improve my circumstances; there is nothing against that, is there?")

Kapp was on very intimate terms with Professor Lieber. But the Professor was hard on him. He always, in his own publications, gave citations, particularly from Roman jurists, and then wanted Kapp to find chapter and verse for them. Kapp really knew less of the text of the Corpus Juris than did the Professor himself. His historical studies naturally brought him into social connection with the leading historical scholars of this country. He was able to be of great service to Mr. Bancroft, Mr. Greene, and others in procuring manuscripts from Berlin, or in giving them access to rare authorities which he himself possessed. They always found in him a careful and thorough investigator, and a candid reasoner even where his conclusions differed from theirs. His own scholarship in many directions was not often surpassed. Of his books written in this country,* we have heard from his German friends but one criticism, to the effect that his style was "burschikos," or that of a student. This was generally said in a disapproving sense. We have frequently read his works with a view to finding out the truth of this criticism, and have always failed. The thing which mainly distinguishes them is their great realism, and the humor which he introduced wherever it was practicable. Both peculiarities are averse to a student's manner, which is naturally theoretical and stiff. His manner of writing history was not at the time so usual as it has since become—very strict adherence to what may be called the text, and abstinence from anything like general disquisition. There was, perhaps, too strong a tendency to give dates and particulars concerning matters which, especially in biography, cannot be called of historical interest. His works written in Europe† contain a certain train of reflections on this country which has been made an accusation against him. It is but simple justice to his memory to say that these reflections were his inmost convictions—precisely such as he had always uttered in private conversation. There is no conflict between them and anything contained in his works written here. The latter are equally sincere. But it is astonishing how little Republicanism will suffice for setting up a Prussian revolutionary; and we must not overlook the pains which, as a member of the Reichstag, Kapp took to deprive that body of any excuse for ignorance about America. Thanks to his intelligent care and incentive, the library of the German Reichstag has the finest collection in Europe of the works pertaining to the United States which are most needful for the legislator, the statesman, and the historian. We remember his telling us this past summer of his having enabled a poor woman in Germany to recover an estate left her by a relative in Idaho, by refer-

ring to the laws of that Territory, which were accessible in the library just mentioned. Death overtook him while deeply engrossed with a new and laborious work on the history of the book-trade in Germany, which we hope is so far advanced as to be sure of publication.

BELGIUM AND EUROPE.

PARIS, October 22, 1884.

THE state of Belgium becomes disquieting. Hitherto it could almost be said of the little kingdom, placed on the frontier of France, and protected by the engagements made by Europe in 1834, that it realized the maxim: "Happy the people which has no history." Belgium was able to preserve her integrity not only during the golden days of the reign of Louis Philippe, but even during the Second Empire, though Napoleon III. was bent on changing everything in the Old World, and even tried his hand in the New. Its neutrality was respected during the terrible war between France and Germany in 1870. No external danger seems to have threatened its existence since it received its official recognition from diplomacy. After the great wars of Napoleon, it was felt that a barrier, a strong barrier, must be placed against France on the north, and the kingdom of the Netherlands was created by the allied sovereigns and formed of all the ancient possessions of Spain and of the House of Austria. But it was found that this creation was somewhat too artificial; there was nothing in common between the provinces of the North and the provinces of the South of the new kingdom, and the French Revolution of 1830 had a *contre-coup* in the revolution of Brussels. M. de Talleyrand was chosen by Louis Philippe as the representative of France in the Conference of London. The French King not only acted diplomatically, he sent Marshal Gérard with a French army into Belgium, and Antwerp was besieged at a time when Louis Philippe himself was not well assured of his own position in Europe. The movement of Belgium was, however, irresistible—as irresistible as the movement of the French people against Charles X. The ill-humor of the Northern courts could only, contrary, it could not prevent, the establishment of a new order of things at Brussels. Louis Philippe showed his disinterestedness by refusing for his son, the Duc de Nemours, the crown of Belgium, and the new star in the constellation of kings became Leopold of Saxe-Coburg.

While Prince Talleyrand was in London at the Conference, he wished at times to correspond directly with the King. His official correspondence was sent to the Minister of Foreign Affairs, but ministerial life is short after a revolution. Paris was still agitated; there was not much stability in the new administration, and this affair of Belgium, which was of so much importance to France as a nation, required to be conducted with some sort of unity and of fixity. The Ministers who were to introduce parliamentary government into France, in what they considered its purity, were very jealous of the action of the sovereign, though he was the sovereign of their choice. Louis Philippe could not easily carry on a correspondence with Talleyrand over the head of the Minister, though he felt that officially he was not sufficiently well informed. He had a sister, Princess Adelaide, who was very devoted to him, and who was herself a friend of Talleyrand, and even more of the Princess of Vaudemont, who belonged to the circle of Talleyrand's intimate friends. Talleyrand wrote very interesting letters to Princess Adelaide during the Conference of London, which were always sent to the Princess of Vaudemont through an English banker. The Princess of Vaudemont be-

* 'The Slavery Question in America' (1854), and a 'History of Slavery in the United States' (1860); 'Lives of General Steuben (1858) and Kalb (1862)', the latter recently published in English in this city; 'The Traffic of German Princes in Soldiers for America' (1864); a 'History of German Emigration to America' (1867).

† 'Frederick the Great and the United States' (1871); 'From and Concerning America' (1876); 'Justus Ehrlich Bollmann' (1880).

longed to the house of Lorraine. She had a very high rank, and received the visits of the Princes and Princesses of the royal blood. She was never married, and died long ago. Still, many people still living remember her very well. The letters which she carried to Princess Adelaide were in reality written for the King; they give a very exact account of the negotiations, and show the state of London at the time very vividly. The collection of these letters, which are very creditable to the old diplomat, was pilfered in 1848, in the plunder of the Palais Royal, and was sold afterward for a trifling sum to an engineer. I have been allowed to make a copy of it, but the letters cannot be published, on account of the strict precautions taken by Talleyrand against any publication of his memoirs and letters.

I only mention this collection because there sometimes appears in the letters of Talleyrand the expression of a doubt as to the future of Belgium. He even goes so far in these confidential letters as to ask himself if there is such a thing as Belgium—if such a country is not the artificial child of diplomacy. History would answer here that Belgium has not entirely an artificial life and an artificial independence. The great American historian, Motley, writing the history of the independence of the Netherlands, has well shown that the tie between the northern and the southern provinces was not durable. The tyranny of Spain had united the Calvinists of the Netherlands and the Catholics of Brabant, Hainaut, and Flanders. The confederacy was formed at Ghent, but the tie was never solid, and the southern provinces were finally separated from Holland and Zealand. The House of Orange became identified with these last provinces, while the others were reconquered by the Prince of Parma, Alexander Farnese, who inaugurated a policy of conciliation. The perversely insane policy of Philip II. was forever abandoned. The Prince of Parma, with his Italian finesse, understood that there was no real connection between Holland and what we must call Belgium; that between the French frontier of Artois and Antwerp the old nobility was still attached to the Catholic faith, and that the cities only cared for their municipal liberties and privileges.

The Catholic religion was the cement which united Belgium to Spain, and it has ever since remained the living force in a country covered with monasteries and magnificent churches. In 1830 the Catholics were found side by side with the Liberals against the detested House of Orange; it may even be said, without exaggeration, that the Catholics were the bitterest enemies of Holland. Their leader at the time, Félix de Mérode, belonged to a house which has always been famous for its devotion to the Church, and which has served its cause in many countries—in Germany, in Italy, in France. At one time he was so popular that he was mentioned among the possible candidates to the new throne. The feeling of communion and of sympathy between the Belgian Catholics and those who were called Liberals was a strong tie, which could not easily be cut. It was a fortunate circumstance for the new dynasty, which had for its principal object the establishment of constitutional government in Belgium, that it found at once the elements for what has been called government by parties. Catholics and Liberals were equally devoted to the new order of things, equally anxious not to create too many difficulties for the new sovereign. They looked upon him as an arbiter, and succeeded each other in power with the same regularity as the Conservatives and the Liberals in England. By a sort of common and patriotic consent it was understood that the lease of power of each of the parties should not become eternal, that neither of them should become tyrannical and arbitrary, that the Liberals and the Catho-

lies should carry out the maxim, "Live and let live."

The parliamentary life of Belgium was as quiet for a long series of years as the movement of a pendulum. King Leopold, by the taciturnity of his character, his reticence, his indifference, served extremely well this natural development of representative institutions and government. He was a Protestant among Catholics, he was a foreigner, he had seen many men and many things, he had learned in England the rules of constitutional government. His son Leopold II. has inherited many of his faculties: he is as calm, as wise, as silent; he sees things from above, he has no favorites, no enemies. "I make no difference among Belgians," said he some time ago to the Burgomaster of Brussels. His position became gradually almost the same as the position of his father, who has sometimes been called the Nestor of Sovereigns. How is it that things are changed, that the King has been attacked in person, and that there seems to be an end to the quiet existence of the monarch who ruled in Brussels as in a sort of political Arcadia?

It is not very easy to answer this question, but there seems little doubt that the new spirit of political intolerance which threatens Belgium has its origin in the struggle which is raging between religion and positivism, or, if you like it better, between clericalism and anti-clericalism. A positivist is willing to admit the spiritual instinct and the established religions as facts. The anti-clerical, who calls himself a Liberal in Belgium as he does in France, is not always a philosopher—it may even be said that he is seldom a philosopher, but he objects to the slightest interference of the religious element not only in the affairs of the state, but even in the education of the people. The struggle began in Germany with the *Kulturkampf*; in France a terrible war was declared against the congregations, and the public schools became, without exception, lay schools. It could hardly be expected that a spiritual warfare, which has now for several years convulsed Germany and France, should not be felt in Belgium. The issue between the Catholics and the Liberals in Belgium is the education of the people. The Catholics have passed a school law which leaves the choice of lay or clerical teachers in a commune to the majority of the fathers who live in it. The law, even when there is a lay school, forces the commune to give some support to a clerical school, if there is a certain minority, sufficiently large, which claims it. This is not all; it is not possible to admit that the existence *de facto* of a Republic in France for a number of years should not affect a country like Belgium, which is, in every respect, a small counterfeit of France. The Belgians read our books, play our plays, copy all our fashions. There are fashions also in politics. There are now avowed republicans in Belgium; they will not be numerous at first; they will not be, they are not, men of substance, of pure reputation. They are in Brussels now what they were once in France. Who will say that in two years or sooner they will not be what the French republicans were in 1870? An idea which triumphs in France, in the centre of Europe, acts by a sort of perpetual radiation. Napoleon said at Austerlitz: "La République est comme le soleil: malheur à qui ne la voit pas." But there are other powers in France—there are Kings and Emperors. What will they say of this invincible propagandism; what measures can they take? It is not enough to exchange orders and uniforms. The little Belgian fire may kindle all Europe. There is a spirit abroad which it may be difficult to understand and to conquer.

MANNERS AND MORALS IN ENGLAND.

LONDON, October 30, 1884.

THE question is constantly discussed in England, and I perceive from a recent article in your paper that it is discussed in America also, whether there has been a decline of late years in the tone of English society—whether our manners are less polished, our conversation less decorous, our moral standard less strict, than in the earlier years of the present reign. It is a question very difficult to answer, not only because it embraces so wide a field, but because those whose personal recollections, extending over forty or fifty years of adult life, best qualify them to answer it, are likely to have contracted the usual fault of the old, and to see too keenly the faults of to-day while they remember the charms of youthful days. Such persons have several explanations to give, but before hearing them one must ask whether the alleged decadence does in fact exist.

To take the lightest part of the charge first, is it true that the manners of men toward one another are less suave and courteous than formerly? Suavity has never been a strong point with the English, who seem to Continental eyes both stiff and brusque. But the only reason given for holding us less courteous than formerly is that rude language and scenes of violence have grown more frequent in Parliament. This must be admitted. Nor is it only, as many Englishmen will tell you, the Irish members who transgress good manners. Several English members, some of them people of high social position, are pretty nearly as bad. The House of Commons, however, contains only 630 persons, and its sins can be easily accounted for by special causes. Two or three men set the example, and the last Speaker's leniency allowed the evil to grow. The very fact that the country notes and condones it, and that the present Speaker is generally praised for his greater stringency, shows that the House of Commons is in this respect below the average level of good private society. "Scenes" in town councils or other local assemblies are occasionally reported in the newspapers, but on the whole the business of these bodies goes on with wonderfully little personal friction, especially as they are chiefly composed of persons who are not, in the conventional English sense of the word, "gentlemen" in station. Considering that duelling completely died out thirty or forty years ago, while it still holds its ground on the Continent, it is remarkable that none of the evils its defenders predicted have followed. Insulting language, personal assaults, violent quarrels of all kinds, are less common now than they were when duelling flourished, and, considering the infirmity of human nature, may be pronounced very rare. We retain, besides our brusquerie, the great fault of indicating by manner our sense of caste differences. Inferiors are apt to be servile, superiors haughty. But this is not an increasing fault; the sentiment of equality grows, although slowly, and will remove it in time.

Everybody knows what a character we bore on the Continent for the use of profane language. I could mention places in France where the ordinary name for an Englishman is still "un goddam." But swearing has now disappeared not only from ordinary polite society, but from the army and navy. Not all commanders have reached the level of the Captain of the *Pinafore*, and on board ship, where things have to be done quickly and a mishap may be serious, it may be necessary to relieve one's feelings forcibly. But on shore a naval officer, who, in the novels of sixty years ago, could hardly open his mouth without an oath, is as decorous as other people. The improvement among the laboring classes is less marked, but if one excepts certain classes, such

as dock laborers and draymen, canal boatmen and such like, there is less bad language than in France. This is the more remarkable because it doesn't seem due to any growth of religious feeling. Sixty years ago it was the professedly religious people only who objected to swearing, and persons who joined them from the ranks of what used to be called "the world" had hard work to rid themselves of a habit which scandalized the congregation. Now the practice has ceased to be a sin and become merely (if habitual, for no one thinks much of an occasional word) a mark of ill-breeding.

To come to a more serious matter, there can be no doubt that intoxication is far less common among the middle and upper classes than it was in our grandfathers' or fathers' times. One sees this in many ways. Thirty years ago people sat over their wine after dinner for an hour at least, and drank five or six glasses of port. Now they sit, unless some interesting subject of talk turns up, only twenty minutes, and drink two or three glasses at most. It is true that more is drunk at dinner, but it is less trying to the head then. The number of those who drink nothing is large and increases daily, partly because many physicians prescribe abstinence, partly from philanthropic motives and the desire to set a good example to the poor. On the stage, in comic papers, and in after-dinner speeches, it is still a conventional joke to assume that people get drunk in good society; but in reality the phenomenon is rare. A few weeks ago I heard a man of fifty, who had moved a great deal in the best circles of London and of a University city, declare that he had never but twice in his life seen a gentleman the worse for liquor; and several persons among the party present declared their experience to be similar. Others could not say quite so much, yet all agreed that, considering how common intoxication is among certain classes, and used to be among all classes, it had become surprisingly rare in their own rank. This does not mean that there are not still many people who injure their health and character by the too frequent resort to stimulants, for one hears many lamentations over the practice of taking "nips" and "pick-me-ups" through the day; a practice alleged to prevail among ladies of fashion as well as young men in the city. I speak only of intoxication, which has become a mark of gross ill-breeding in the society of ladies, and is condemned as "bad form" even in a party of men.

It is more difficult to express an opinion as to the standard of morality in matters which regard the relations of the two sexes. England used to plume itself on being a specially well conducted country in this respect; but the large use made of the Divorce Court, established for the first time in 1857, showed that irregularities were commoner than people had liked to believe. Divorce can be obtained only on the ground of conjugal infidelity, accompanied, if the charge is made against the husband, by cruelty. The number of divorces does not appear to increase faster than the growth of population, so that we have no special uneasiness on this score since the first two or three years of the Court's working. There seems no ground for assuming any decline in the morality of the middle classes, or of what may be called the non-fashionable section of the upper class. Much, however, is said about the fashionable section, which, although small in numbers, is influential from the wealth and rank of those who compose it, and attracts public notice to a degree even beyond its political influence. People say that not only are irregularities increasingly frequent, but that there is less decorum in manners, less reserve in the intercourse of men with women, less regard for propriety in language. Certain it is that the ladies in some of these fashionable sets, the married quite as much

as the unmarried ones, permit themselves to be more easy and familiar in the company of men than would have been approved by their mothers or grandmothers thirty years ago. Some will romp, others frequent the smoking-room at the country house where they are staying; others seek to join in men's amusements, and learn to talk about shooting or racing. Subjects are discussed, books are owned to have been read, which would not be tolerated outside these fashionable circles. Even where gossip, which of course is very rife in such a society, has no positive transgression to suspect, there is an unmistakable tendency towards fastness in conduct and slanginess in language. Within the last decade there has arisen a group of journals devoted to social gossip, which may be seen on the drawing-room tables of these persons, although their contents are sometimes scandalous, and often unpleasantly suggestive. They are read with avidity by a part of the middle class, and go even to India, where people fancy that through them they keep abreast of the doings of high society; but it is also the fashionable class which supports them, for its members enjoy the importance of being written about, and sometimes are not above earning a disgraceful guinea by contributing malicious paragraphs. In a book of recollections published lately by the brother of a duke, he owned to having done this, and everybody knows of other instances.

It must not be supposed that this infection has spread far. The great bulk of our cultivated society is untouched by it. One may live in the capital of England and have as much company as one desires of the kind which an intelligent stranger would most wish to see—the company of men of letters and science, the heads of the great professions, the prominent figures in politics—without knowing anything except by hearsay of the doings of these fashionable sets. They are not the best society; they are only a section even of the people of rank and wealth; and the fuss made about them both in our own journals and in the letters of correspondents to newspapers in the colonies and in foreign countries, gives an exaggerated impression of their actual influence on English life. England is doubtless the chosen home of snobbishness, as Thackeray explained to the world long ago; yet she is not so snobbish as casual visitors, or the superficial readers of her press, are apt to fancy.

Whatever be the area over which the deterioration spreads, it is generally admitted to exist, and people busy themselves with accounting for it in the way which least wounds our national self-esteem. Some set it down to the influence of French literature. Paris is doubtless a sort of poison manufactory for the rest of Europe. The novels which profess to paint the life of her most depraved classes are read with avidity not only in new or raw countries which have little imaginative literature of their own, like Russia, Greece, Rumania—one may perhaps add Spain and Portugal—but also in England and Germany. The children of luxury find our English fiction, which, however sensational, is always decent, not high-spiced enough; and one is told by booksellers and the owners of circulating libraries in London that the demand for French fiction is very large, and not confined to men. If this is not a cause, it is at any rate a symptom, and one which tends to aggravate the disease.

Another explanation which people frequently offer, and which I recollect to have seen assigned in the *Evening Post* some months ago, is the influence of the heir to the throne and those who surround him. Although he is personally a good-natured and agreeable man, his example has not been a good one, and is the more to be regretted when one compares it with that set by his parents. The most serious, and, indeed, the only

charge that can be brought against the Queen is, that since her husband's death she has virtually abdicated her headship of society, abandoning those opportunities of maintaining the level of good morals and good manners which she used so well while she kept a court in London. The social duties of the Crown are now its main duties, and the way she and her husband discharged them almost marked a new era in the history of our monarchy, which could not long survive any grave scandal attaching to the sovereign. But too much importance has been assigned to the unsatisfactory tone of what is called the Prince of Wales's set, which is itself a result of other facts; and I believe that the causes of the evil are to be sought deeper. Wherever there is a great accumulation of wealth in the hands of idle people, who have neither public duties to discharge nor any intellectual or artistic interests to occupy their minds, the permanent weaknesses of human nature will grow apace and bear their appropriate fruits. We have in England not only a territorial aristocracy with immense incomes, but a crowd of new rich men, who, while aping the habits of the aristocracy, seek to secure their entrance into its ranks by a lavish expenditure in ministering to its pleasures. Luxury and self-indulgence are the natural result of these conditions, and the other evils referred to follow in due course. One can imagine other influences checking or modifying these conditions—some national peril, for instance, or a strong religious movement, which should sway men's wills and engross their thoughts. But none such is present; and the tendencies described have therefore full scope, being more potent now than they were forty years ago, because there has been a longer and fuller tide of material prosperity. They have not prevented a steady improvement in the moral and intellectual, as well as material, well-being of the people at large. Even the class against which are brought the accusations I have been examining may be favorably compared with the corresponding class in Berlin, Vienna, St. Petersburg, never to speak of Paris. But it must frankly be admitted, though persons in other countries seem slow to realize the fact, that those sets in England whose social pretensions are the highest do not, either in morals or manners, in intellect or taste, in public spirit and a sense of national duty, furnish the most laudable specimen of English worth. Those who have here begun to ask what are the political uses of an hereditary nobility, will go on to ask what are its social uses.

Y.

A NEW HAMLET.

LONDON, October 25, 1884.

THE event of the London theatrical season up to the present has been the revival of "Hamlet" at the Princess's Theatre. To play this part is the familiar ambition of every rising actor, who must, however, to accomplish it, be his own manager, and it has long been known that Mr. Wilson Barrett had made up his mind that his opportunity had come. He has risen by faithful work from the bottom of his profession, and although it was known that whatever he undertook he was likely to do well, his performance in the "Silver King," of Jones and Herman, was a complete surprise for the great advance it showed upon previous assumptions. This was followed by another and greater success in "Claudian," a poetical melodrama, which was fortunate enough to start with the praise of Mr. Ruskin and Mr. Matthew Arnold. Then came "Chatterton," of which the *Nation* gave an account at the time. Now at length "Hamlet" has made its appearance at the Princess's, with Mr. Ruskin and Mr. Arnold again well to the front at the first representation. That

it has proved another of the series of successes it is no longer necessary to say; indeed, Garrick used to assert that no actor with any qualifications at all for his profession, could possibly fail entirely as *Hamlet*. But Mr. Barrett's success is of that three-fold character which is demanded of an actor-manager at the present day. His version of the text, his arrangement of the actual details of presentation—including the division of the acts, choice of costumes and decorations, and "business"—and his own assumption of the title rôle, have all been received with approval, and completely justify the classic ambition in his case.

His *Hamlet*, it may be said at once, is an original one. He has gone back to the oldest sources—even as far back as the first folio—and has decided for himself in all uncertain points without regard for the superstructure of tradition which has turned Shakspeare's *Hamlet* into the actor's *Hamlet*. To begin with his arrangement of the play into acts and scenes, the principal changes from the customary division are three in number. First, after the soliloquy, "Oh, what a rogue and peasant slave am I!" the act proceeds, instead of closing with the applause which this is calculated to produce. The next act thus opens with the speech to the players, given while they, with *Hamlet*, are on their way through the grounds of the castle to the place of performance. And after the scene in the *Queen's* chamber the play goes on with the entrance of the *King* to consult her, and to arrange about the burial of *Polonius* and the despatch of *Hamlet* to England. By these changes many speeches for the *King* are retained which serve to make him a more complete character and a more integral part of the play. The most conspicuous, and indeed most fortunate, innovation is the removal of the play-scene to the open air, thus making *Hamlet* attempt to "catch the conscience of the *King*" upon the very spot where the murder was committed. A low platform is erected on the right of the stage between two trees, from which thick curtains are hung from side to side; torches are held by attendants and fixed to the walls of the castle, and the *King* and *Queen*, *Hamlet* and *Ophelia*, sit on the left of the stage upon rustic benches. When the court withdraws in confusion, the stage is naturally left in semi-darkness, and *Hamlet* rushes upon the vacant platform and declaims his wild words from there, instead of jumping on the *King's* seat, as Mr. Irving makes him do.

The archaeology of the play was determined by Mr. Godwin, the well-known Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, who visited Denmark some time ago for the purpose of producing the decorations for the present revival. On the whole, a series of brilliant stage pictures were displayed, whose slightly barbaric coloring and outline seemed strange after the æsthetic combinations of color and simplicity of form to which we have lately been accustomed, especially since Shakspeare himself thought so little of accuracy in these matters as to give to his play, as Schlegel puts it, "a tone of the most modish society and in every respect the costumes of the most recent period."

The first innovation upon the received text was furnished by *Hamlet's* first line, "A little more than kin and less than kind," in which the last word was pronounced to rhyme with "sinn'd," the allusion being to the German word for child, still current in some parts of England—more than "cosin," less than "sonne." This is said to have been first suggested by Dr. Johnson. "The air bites shrewdly; is it very cold?" is another return to the reading of the first folio. "A very, very Paicocke," is read as "paddock," i. e., toad. But the reading upon which the spirit of the present revival turned was "a dozen years," as the time

Yorick's skull had lain in the earth, instead of the customary "three and twenty." From the latter reading and the saying of *Hamlet* that he had been carried upon *Yorick's* back "a thousand times," his age is reckoned at about thirty, and that of his mother at not much less than fifty. But following the reading "a dozen years," which is that of the earliest edition, the quarto of 1603, Mr. Barrett appears about twenty, and the *Queen* an attractive woman of less than forty. The line referring to *Hamlet* going "back to school at Wittenberg" is strictly in support of this reading, and as to the *Queen's* remark during the fencing that *Hamlet* is "fat and scant of breath," it may well be that Shakspeare himself inserted that line to excuse the corpulence of Burbage, who "created" the part of *Hamlet*. At any rate, the whole play gains by the change; the villain-king "smiles and smiles," their amorous majesties exchange caresses in public, and the whole court, taking its cue from them, is merry with wine and music and jester.

One customary aspect of the play that Mr. Barrett's revival removes is its melancholy; "the melancholy Dane" no longer weights the whole performance with his private troubles. A second customary aspect that is equally removed is mystery. As Mr. Barrett represents him, there is never any doubt as to whether *Hamlet* is mad or feigns to be so; the first moment of his assumption is clearly seen to be when he catches sight of *Polonius* in hiding while he is talking with *Ophelia*, and, instantly changing his tone, asks her sharply, "Art thou honest?" Schlegel compares the tragedy of "Hamlet" to "one of those irrational equations in which a fraction of unknown magnitude always remains, that will in no way admit of solution." If the simile be a just one, it can be said that in the person of the latest *Hamlet* the fraction of unknown magnitude is reduced to its lowest terms. The springs of all his actions are apparent; he ventures far more freely than his predecessors upon the use of the familiar style; he is more of a man like ourselves than an incarnate psychological problem, as we have often known him. In short, he is probably more like the *Hamlet* that Shakspeare had in mind. Mr. Barrett's personality is perhaps not so peculiar and stimulating to curiosity as those of some who have recently preceded him in the part, and there has never been, of course, a performance in which there were not minor points open to criticism; but a true verdict upon Mr. Barrett's revival as a whole may be given in the words of one of the leading London dramatic critics: "It is not too much to say that it restores to the stage both the text and the spirit of the play."

O. R.

Correspondence.

TELEPATHY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Apropos of the article in the *Nation*, No. 1008, p. 350, the following case is related. Some two and a-half years ago a dealer in futures found it prudent to leave home and put the Atlantic between his creditors and himself. He returned (unaccountably) to this side a few weeks ago, and the morning of his arrest, 1,000 miles away, his wife awoke in a nightmare, and told her mother she was miserable because she had seen (in her sleep) her husband arrested by three men, whom she described accurately. Eight hours later a telegram brought her the first intelligence of her husband's being in the States, and fuller accounts came later and were substantially as she had dreamed. The time she woke from the dream and the time of the arrest coincided very

closely, making proper longitudinal allowances. Was this a case of telepathy? . . .
October 27, 1884.

"TO LAY ON LOAD."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It seems to me that this fine old idiomatic phrase has been rather slighted by English lexicographers. In Sewall's 'Diary,' vol. i, p. 442, we find him writing: "This morn Madam Elisa Bellingham came to our house and upbraided me with setting my hand to pass Mr. Wharton's account. . . . I was wheedled and hector'd into that business, and have all along been uneasy in the remembrance of it; and now there is one come that will not spare to lay load." (The italics are not in the original.) Doctor Johnson, in the last edition of his Dictionary, gives as one of the definitions of the word *load*, "weight or violence of blows," and cites in its support the following three passages:

"Like lions moved (b) they layd on load."
—Chevy Chase, l. 123 (135).

"Far heavier load thyself expect to feel
From my prevailing arm."
—Milton, P. L., iv, 972.

"And Mnesteus laid hard load upon his helm."
—Dryden, Æneid, iv, 812.

But he does not intimate that there was ever any such idiomatic use of the expression as is evidently made by Judge Sewall. So his later editors, Todd and Latham, and Webster (Goodrich's ed.) and Ogilvie, in the 'Imperial Dictionary,' repeat the definition with one or the other of the same citations to sustain it. Yet the phrase is a good idiomatic one of the Elizabethan age:

"So dreadful strokes each did at other drive,
And laid on load with all their might and power."
—Spenser, F. Q., B. iv, c. ix, st. 22.

"They all at once at him gan fiercely fite,
And lay on load, as they him downe would beare."
—Id., ib. st. 33.

"But still continued his assault the more,
And layd on load with his huge yron taile."
—Id., b. v, c. ii, st. 24.

"And because my armor was gilded and glittering they all lay'd load on me."—*Travaux de Coronado's Relation in Hakluyt, Voyages, etc.*, v. iii, p. 430 (ed. 1810).

The only authority I have found to notice the expression is Halliwell, who, in his 'Dictionary of Archaic and Provincial Words,' s. v. *lay*, gives the phrase *to lay on load*, 'to strike violently and repeatedly,' without, however, citing any examples of this use of it.

HENRY W. HAYNES,

BOSTON, October 26, 1884.

JUDGE TOURGÉE AND THE CENSUS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the *Church Press* of October 18 I find, copied from the *Critic*, a notice of Judge Tourgée's 'Appeal to Caesar,' with quotations from it purporting to give "the facts and suggestions of the last Census." I have not seen the book, but presume the quotations are correctly given. "The white population," we are told, "increasing at the rate of twenty per cent. (it should be twenty-nine; see Spofford's *American Almanac* for 1883, p. 110) in ten years, or two per cent. per annum, doubles itself every thirty-five years. The black, increasing at the rate of thirty-five per cent. in ten years, or three and a half per cent. per annum, doubles itself in twenty years." And from this the inference is drawn that "before the conclusion of this century we shall have a chain of States extending from the Potomac to the Mississippi, in every one of which the colored race will have a clear and indisputable majority, and in several of which their predominance will be very nearly in the ratio of two to one."

Judge Tourgée has evidently been misled by the gross inaccuracy, so far as the colored population is concerned, of the Census of 1870—an in-

accuracy so gross and so obvious, that it is strange he should not have perceived it. The percentage of increase of white and of colored in each decade of the present century, as deduced from the figures of the Census (Spofford, p. 110), omitting fractions less than half of one per cent. and adding one per cent. for fractions over half, is as follows.

Decade.	White.	Col'd.	Decade.	White.	Col'd.
1800-1810....	.36	.38	1840-1850....	.38	.27
1810-1820....	.34	.28	1850-1860....	.38	.22
1820-1830....	.34	.31	1860-1870....	.25	.10
1830-1840....	.35	.23	1870-1880....	.29	.35

It will be seen that, in the war decade, while, from losses in the field on both sides and diminished immigration, the percentage of increase of the white population fell off but a trifle over one-third, that of the colored population, which was comparatively little affected by one of these causes and not at all by the other, dropped down, according to the figures of the Census, from twenty-two per cent. to ten, and then rebounded to thirty-five! Obviously, there is an error, and a very serious one, in the enumeration of the colored population of 1870. As, however, there is no way to get at its exact magnitude, let us eliminate it, by taking successive periods of twenty years each:

1800-1820.....	.69 per cent. increase.
1820-1840.....	.62 " "
1840-1860.....	.55 " "
1860-1880.....	.48 " "

The actual increase in the first of these periods is seventy-seven per cent. A part of this increase, however, is to be credited to the importation of slaves during the first seven years: how much, I do not know, not having access to the statistics, but I have estimated it at one-tenth, which leaves sixty-nine per cent. of natural increase. It will be seen that the percentage of increase goes on diminishing from each preceding period to that which follows, at the uniform rate of seven per cent.; and that if this continues, the colored population, so far from doubling in the twenty years from 1880, will increase only forty-one per cent.; while the white population, which from 1800 to 1820 increased eighty-two per cent., 1820 to 1840 eighty-one per cent., 1840 to 1860 ninety per cent., and from 1860 to 1880, notwithstanding the war, sixty-one per cent., will in all probability, now that that disturbing element is eliminated, resume its old rate of increase of from eighty to ninety per cent. There is no occasion, then, for alarm lest the Judge's chain of negro States extending from the Potomac to the Mississippi should swamp our civilization; they exist only in his teeming imagination.

E. J. STEARNS.

EASTON, MD., October 25, 1884.

THE ACADIAN TRAGEDY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: A recent letter in the *Nation*, signed by Mr. Philip H. Smith, takes me to task for an article on the removal of the Acadians in *Harper's Monthly* for November. If he had read it with more care he would have escaped several errors in his account of it. The article is but the latter half, much curtailed, of what I have written on the subject. The whole may be found in 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' vol. i, just now published, and the former part is necessary to a good understanding of the latter.

Mr. Smith seems to think that the Acadian story is one-sided, from an alleged destruction of French records. The French documents relating to the treatment of the Acadians are far more abundant than the English, and of the most un-

questionable authenticity. I have by me two large folio volumes of them, of about 500 pages each, copied from the archives of the Marine and Colonies at Paris. These papers have been hitherto unknown to history. They set in the plainest light the condition of Acadia between 1748 and 1755—that is, down to the removal of its inhabitants—and give the clearest insight into the causes that led to this removal. Up to the present time no accurate view of the subject has been possible from ignorance of the evidence on the French side.

It is needless to point out the errors of Mr. Smith's communication. The narrative in 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' along with the documents appended in vol. ii, soon to be published, will carry its own proof. In another part of the same number of the *Nation*, I find the following by another writer, apropos of the article in *Harper's*: "Most people, when they desire to know the true history of Acadia, will be content to read Longfellow." If so, they will not find what they seek, but in its place a graceful and touching poem and a charming ideal picture. The author of the remark just quoted adds that "the history of events is not always the history of humanity." But the history of humanity, to be good for anything, must rest not on imagination but on truth.

F. PARKMAN.

BOSTON, November 1, 1884.

Notes.

L. R. HAMERSLY, Philadelphia, announces 'The Indian Sign Language,' by the late Captain W. P. Clark, Second Cavalry, U. S. A., completed by Colonel James F. Gregory, U. S. A.

Charles Scribner's Sons have in press Canon Rawlinson's 'Egypt and Babylon,' and will also publish E. T. A. Hoffmann's 'Weird Tales,' a work on the Scotch Highlands by Professor John Stuart Blackie, and Dr. Schliemann's forthcoming work on Tiryns.

A translation by Mrs. Francis Brooks, from the German of Johanna Spyri, entitled 'Heidi: Her Years of Wandering and Learning: a Story for Children and Those Who Love Children,' will be published, solely for the benefit of the Kindergarten Department of the Blind Asylum at South Boston, through Cupples, Upham & Co., Boston. The same publishers will issue immediately a second edition of Besant's 'Art of Fiction,' adding to it Mr. Henry James's answer.

Ginn, Heath & Co. announce for December 1 a second revised edition of Hunt's edition of Cædmon's 'Exodus and Daniel,' in their library of Anglo-Saxon poetry. They will issue during the present month the following new volumes in their series of "Classics for Children": Scott's 'Lady of the Lake,' edited by Edwin Ginn, and Kingsley's 'Water Babies,' edited by Miss J. H. Stickney. Kingsley's 'Grecian Heroes,' edited by John Tetlow, and the 'Swiss Family Robinson,' edited by Miss Stickney, will follow soon in the same series. Vol. i of the "Educational Classics," 'Extracts from Rousseau's *Emile*,' edited by Jules Steeg and translated by Miss Worthington, and Miss Turner's 'Stories for Young Children,' are also set down among the November issues of this house.

A novel magazine is announced to be published in this city at No. 18 Spruce Street. It is a monthly magazine bearing the title *Babyhood*, and designed "to become a medium for the dissemination among parents of the best thoughts of the time on every subject connected with the needs of early childhood." The editorship of the department relating to general nursery routine and cooking will be in the hands of Marion Harland; and Dr. Leroy Milton Yale, of Bellevue

Hospital Medical College, will oversee the medical and hygienic articles. The other writers whose names are given as co-laborers have a standing which seems to insure a high quality in the contents of *Babyhood*, for which we can readily believe there is a large field of usefulness. The first number will appear in December.

The Salmagundi Sketch Club's seventh annual exhibition will be held at the Academy of Design on December 11-23. Works will be received only on the 5th. The Secretary's address is 80 Washington Square, East.

Parts 10 and 11 of 'Stormonth's Dictionary of the English Language' (Harpers) reach the word *mint*.

We have received the first number of the illustrated *Magazine of Western History*, published at No. 145 St. Clair Street, Cleveland, O., and appropriately having for its frontispiece a portrait of General Arthur St. Clair. A portrait of Rufus Putnam accompanies an article on the organization of the Ohio Land Company. Among the attractions of this new enterprise, which we wish success, will be a serial history of Ohio, beginning, perhaps, with the geographical history of the State in the present number.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. add to their illustrated edition of Scott's poems "The Lay of the Last Minstrel," uniform with the "Marmion," lately produced, and quite equal to it in typography and in the general character of the designs.

A beautiful edition of Bacon's 'Essays' and 'Wisdom of the Ancients' between two covers has just been issued by Little, Brown & Co. The care usually taken by this firm in the proportions of the page and the scrupulous typography is observable here. The supplementary matter, such as the biographical sketch of Bacon, Basil Montagu's preface, etc., has been derived from a variety of sources.

'The Good Things of Life' is the felicitous title of a volume of cartoons taken from our humorous contemporary (White, Stokes & Allen). The drawing is nearly all clever, although the facsimile of pen-work by photography will never equal in artistic effect that by wood-engraving. The essential quality, after all, is to be sought and is here found in the legends, which are generally pointed and never flat. The one with which the book opens is a good specimen, even if neither original nor American, and has, besides, a timely application for a certain class of citizens who could not bring themselves, from social considerations, to vote for Cleveland: "Visiting Briton—'Ya-as, Miss Wosalind; but your politicians—aw—are a lot of blawsted cuds, y' know. You are—aw—wuled by a set of wiotous wascals whom you wouldn't dream of—aw—inviting to your house.' *Rosalind*—'True, but in England you are governed by persons who wouldn't dream of inviting you to theirs.'"

A pleasing paper on Boileau and Boursault, by Alphonse Pauly, introduces *Le Livre* for October. The lesser poet is shown to have been the nobler man, and to have been able to win over his satirist, after a retort in kind, to a friendship creditable to both parties. Champfleury describes Caragueuz, the demoralizing Punch and Judy of the East, with the aid of authentic representations of the puppets employed. His comments on the various accounts of the show scattered through French literature, and here gathered together by him, stand ethically in much the same relation to those which an English writer would feel bound to make, that Caragueuz does to Punch and Judy as an index of civilization.

A German edition of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's 'Round the World' is soon to be published, probably in Leipzig.

The drawback to owning a museum of antiquities is that one is not always sure that one's trea-

sures are antique. M. Frédéric Moreau has adopted the same method that Schliemann did to insure the genuineness of his, viz., he digs them up himself. The whole of the summer he spends in explorations in the old cemeteries of the department of the Aisne; in the autumn he makes a detailed report of his findings, with full descriptions and numerous plates, called "Album Caranda," because he starts from Caranda. The seventh part has just been issued. During the winter he shows his museum to visitors with great good-nature, and no doubt with great satisfaction.

We have received from Professor Karl Geldner, of Tübingen, the first advance sheet of his edition of the 'Avesta.' Geldner is a pupil of Roth, the famous Vedic and Avestan scholar of Tübingen, and has already distinguished himself by valuable contributions to the text-criticism, lexicography, and exegesis of the 'Avesta.' These are contained in his 'Metrik des jüngeren Avesta' (1877), 'Studien zum Avesta' (1882), and in volumes 24, 25, and 27 of Kuhn's *Zeitschrift*. The edition of Westergaard was a splendid achievement for its day, and has been the standard for thirty years; but it is now out of print, and in the meantime much new and valuable critical material has become accessible. A new edition of the text is therefore a pressing need of Avestan scholars. The results of Geldner's previous work warrant us in believing that he will supply this need in a worthy way. He sends us this first sheet in two forms: the one with the ample critical foot-notes in German, and the other with the same notes in English. If this is for the sake of scholars in India who are ignorant of German, why not dispense with the German foot-notes altogether (for Avestan scholars in Germany surely know English)? The externals of the work are truly magnificent. It is printed with no less than three fonts of Zend types, with beautiful rubric initials, on heavy, well-sized paper of fine quality, with quarto pages and broad margins. Geldner will have in full measure the cordial good wishes of scholars for the success of his undertaking.

Dr. Marion Sims, to whom woman is so great a debtor, and whose fame is secure among the benefactors of the race, when a young man practised medicine in Alabama. It is now nearly forty years since he published a theory of the very fatal and hitherto mysterious lockjaw of infants, a serious scourge in some sections, and advised a mode of treatment. The seed fell upon stony ground. Very recently, however, Dr. J. F. Hartigan, of Washington, has demonstrated the complete correctness of those views, and has successfully put them into operation. Dr. Hartigan's 'Lockjaw of Infants' (Birmingham & Co.) is a monograph interesting to medical men and to all intelligent persons who care to see what mechanical levers govern pathological states. It is appropriately dedicated to the memory of Dr. Sims, and the practice it influences will be another leaf in his honorable chaplet.

—By a curious accident of the press, the *per-capita* calculations in the fourth column of the following table were dropped bodily in printing our last issue. The reader could, indeed, make them for himself, but their loss was nevertheless a provoking annoyance:

Census year	Est. True Valuation.	Population.	Per Capita Wealth.	Percentage of Increase in Est. Wealth.	Percentage of Increase in Population.	Percentage of Inc. in Per Capita Wealth.
1850	\$6,174,486,328	23,191,876	266
1860	14,578,112,068	31,443,321	463	136	35	74
1870	23,997,221,474	38,558,371	622	64	22	34
1880	43,642,000,000	50,155,783	870	81	30	30

—Though it is now nearly four years since we have published anything from his pen, the death of Karl Hillebrand, announced in the latest

foreign papers to have occurred at Florence on October 19, should not go unnoticed in the *Nation*, if only as a loss to this journal. Professor Hillebrand was born in September, 1829, at Gies-sen, his father being Joseph Hillebrand, author of a 'History of German National Literature from the Beginning of the Eighteenth Century.' On account of his participation in the revolution in Baden he was forced to flee to France, where for a time he became the private secretary of Heine. In 1865 he was made professor at the University of Douai. This residence made him a very sympathetic judge of the traditional enemies of his fatherland, and his writings were marked by a charitable appreciation not usual in foreign criticism of the French. His chief works relate to the history of that nation ('Geschichte Frankreichs seit 1830,' and *passim* in 'Zeiten, Völker, und Menschen'). He had thoroughly mastered the language, and became a constant contributor to the *Débats* and the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. In 1868 he published in Paris, at the request of the Government, a work on the reform of the higher education. In 1870 he removed to Florence, where his literary activity began to take shape in the works cited above and in articles for the reviews of all nations, as well as in founding in 1873 the *Circolo Filologico*, of which he became librarian, and editing (in German) the periodical collection called *Italia* (begun in October, 1874), and designed to satisfy German interest in Italian affairs. Into these he entered as heartily as he had done into those of France, and it was in search of an American audience that he first began to correspond with the *Nation* in 1872. In the following year and in the years 1877, 1878, 1879, and again in 1881, he continued this relation, writing in English of remarkable though not faultless purity.

—We need not characterize the writings of this highly gifted cosmopolitan, who will long be read for his brilliant and entertaining style, as well as for his solid judgments on contemporary events and historical personages in many lands. The following extracts from letters which we chance to have preserved will perhaps be read with interest:

(December 21, 1877).—"It is understood that in case of a conclave I shall write to the *Nation*, although I am not *dentro nelle segrete cose* with regard to the *papabili* and not-*papabili*, etc. In other terms, I ignore the personalities of the 'Sacro Consesso' (in which ignorance I am at a par with all other lay writers, the difference being only one of more or less frankness in confessing this truth). There are, however, other aspects of the question than the gossip side; and I think I can master them. We are again in a ministerial crisis, as in the good old time of the Right. You see, parties in Italy are 'bonnet blanc et blanc bonnet,' as elsewhere. That is why I never write to you about their squabbles and quarrels. Only when the shades of the Left are driven out, I shall take up again the subject, unless you express different wishes."

(April 6, 1878).—"Will you allow me to congratulate you upon your most admirable articles on the Russo-English difficulties. NO journal in Europe has this unprejudiced, candidly elevated view of the situation; and you know that for me *candid* does not mean *naïveté*. But you need not my approbation."

(March 4, 1879).—"I am very obliged for your kindness, and entirely approve the way you have disposed of my article. Only I am afraid printers who are not familiar with my handwriting will be puzzled, and an Editor who does not know me and has not the very great indulgence you have always shown me, will be more than shocked at the aspect of my MS. The fact is, that I had written it first in French and then given it to a friend of mine for translation. As, however, I was not satisfied with the translation, I gave it to my (future) wife to correct it, as I was very busy just then and thought every moment's delay would be serious. Finally, I looked it through again and made annotations, which accounts for the three different handwritings. Next week (9th March) appears a third entirely revised and augmented edition of my 'Frank-

reich und die Franzosen,' and in May the second volume of my 'History of France.' You might mention also my article in the last *Rundschau*, not to flatter me, not even to name me, but to touch the question. It has made an enormous *Tolle* in Germany. The editor writes to me that he cannot show himself without being interpolated."

"I have been called to London for six lectures at the Royal Institution (13th May to 20th June). If you think you might use them, I would send you extracts."

These lectures, on "England and the English," afterward formed a volume in the 'Zeiten, Völker, und Menschen.'

—M. Gabriel Charries has concluded, in the *Revue Politique*, his articles on "La Marine de Guerre et la Guerre Maritime." He expresses the opinion that privateering and the bombardment of unfortified seaports are to be hereafter the chief features of maritime war; and to relieve himself from the charge of barbarism, he makes quotations from high authorities on international law, which show that both practices are fully authorized. For there is a distinction between land war and sea war: the former will not allow anything of the sort, and forbids the bombardment, of unarmed cities; the latter does not respect private property, and allows such bombardment, on the theory that anything is justifiable which will break an enemy's naval power. To attack fortified places with ships is almost useless, so great is the defensive power of earthworks and torpedoes, and so limited in comparison is the armor-carrying power of ships. Whereas, to send to a rich and undefended seaport a fleet or a single swift cruiser that, before it can be followed, may do incalculable damage, is not only easy and without risk, but promises to the attacking Power that result so ardently desired in our expensive wars—a heavy contribution. The thought is not pleasant to one who looks at the wealth collected at certain points along our seacoast, or easily to be reached from the sea, and remembers how utterly undefended these cities are in the modern acceptance of defence. M. Charries devotes the greater part of his papers, however, to the advocacy of privateering against the arguments of M. Gougeard's 'La Marine de Guerre, son passé et son avenir.' For M. Charries, privateering is the only maritime warfare. The age of pitched battles between large squadrons is passed. The weaker naval Power now does not risk a fight—*pas si bête*. She simply draws her fleet into her ports, where they are protected by heavy fortifications, and the stronger enemy has to stay stupidly outside, blockading the harbor, to be sure, but doing no other harm. In the meantime the weaker Power fits out a few swift corsairs and ruins her blockading enemy's commerce. So acted Germany in the Franco-Prussian war; so acted Russia in the Russo-Turkish war; so acted the Confederate States in our civil war, or would have done if Semmes had not made one great mistake; forgetting that he was a Yankee—that is to say, nothing if not practical—and offering to fight the *Kearsarge* "as if he had been a fool of a Frenchman, a European Don Quixote."

—M. Charries accordingly thinks that France made an egregious mistake at the Congress of Paris in proposing the abolition of privateering, and would have her recede from that agreement, the sooner the better. France has too long been preaching philanthropy, and international fraternity, and other noble sentiments, which her neighbors applaud so long as they profit by them, and do not mind in the least the instant they stand in their way. It is idle to waste any more money on heavily-armored vessels, for torpedoes have destroyed their usefulness. Speed is the criterion of superiority in the navy of the future. The country which can best defend its

own coast by torpedoes, and at the same time most thoroughly ruin the enemy's commerce and harass his seaboard cities, is the country which will win the next naval contest. This is not a kind of warfare that is especially suited for the injury of Germany; but for the enemy on the other side, England, with whom late colonial rivalries have by no means increased the *entente cordiale*, it is the best weapon that could be desired. Four or five great commercial routes connect England with the rest of the world. Let twenty swift vessels lurk along these routes; let them cut her communications with her Indian, Canadian, and Australian colonies; let them intercept the American cotton that keeps her looms in motion and brings her in wealth from all the nations of the earth, and cut off the supplies of American corn that feed her people, and her cry of distress would soon be heard. Certainly no other method would have so great an effect. This is the way to invade England, and not by debarkations or through Channel tunnels. But for France to do anything like this, she must create her torpedo and cruiser navy. She has spent already forty-nine and a half million francs on unfinished armored vessels that will cost 130,000,000 to complete, and will be worthless when done. Why should she not abandon this way altogether, leave the plated boats on the stocks, and, with the millions which she is now going to waste, provide three or four hundred torpedo-boats and a fleet of gunboats and swift ocean cruisers?

—Mme. Adam, having for some time coquetted—"Honni soit qui mal y pense"; in her *Nouvelle Revue*, we mean to say—with the heroes of Pan Slavism, discovered, not long after the death of Skobelev, that the hosts of Muscovy were not yet ready to invade Germany in coöperation with the armies of France, and that in the meanwhile the pro-Russian sympathies of the French Republicans had the effect of intensifying the pro-German leanings of the Magyars, who dread and hate the Muscovites. Thinking that the resuscitation of the enthusiastic feelings which, in the time of the Second French Republic and Kossuth's leadership in Hungary, animated the two countries toward each other, would be a patriotic task, she betook herself to rereading her friend Irányi's History of the Hungarian Revolution of 1848-9 and Chassin's unrhymed translation of the songs of Petöfi, the bard of that revolution, and thus easily rekindled in her own heart the admiration of "the people of the East" whose heroic struggle had thrilled it when she was young Juliette Lamber. To these sentiments she gave full vent on the opportune arrival last year of a party of Hungarian Gallophiles, who had come to Paris via Venice and Milan, carefully avoiding to tread upon German soil. Mme. Adam now felt it incumbent upon her, as the representative French woman, to carry the love of France to Buda-Pesth, to the great Magyar plain, to the banks of the Theiss. She departed last spring. She felt like entering upon a high national mission, and suspected that the wide-awake Magyar nation knew all about her position in Parisian society, about her *salon*, her lead in politics, her books, her *Revue*. And the chivalrous Magyars did not disappoint her. Magnates, journalists, politicians, artists, husbandmen, herdsmen, vied with each other in reciprocating the kind feelings of France's fair messenger. Her tour was an uninterrupted succession of charming scenes and incidents. These she hastened, on her return, to depict in pages of "souvenirs personnels," collected under the title of '*La Patrie Hongroise*,' of which the second edition is now before us. It is a book overflowing with ecstasy, poetic exuberance, and democratic gush. It glorifies Hungary as a coun-

try in which Arcadian simplicity, Roman civic virtue, Hunnish vigor, British political wisdom, French chevaleresqueness, and the general refinement of the nineteenth century bloom side by side. All leading Magyars of the day appear as patterns of nobility of character and patriotism, excepting two—Premier Tisza and Count Andrássy, both supporters of the German alliance, whom she, as a French woman and admirer of the Hungarian Radical opposition, passionately caricatures. Her historical retrospects are done in the same vein, with a vast amount of poetic license as to the facts. Mme. Adam is, however, most precise in describing the external appearance of prominent Magyars, and thus we learn that the novelist Jókai has "an observer's delicate mouth" and fine hands; old Pulszky, an "eagle's nose" and a "sly mouth"; Liszt, the pianist, the face of an apostle; the orator Szilágyi, the most delicate smile she ever saw ("que je connaisse"); Count Albert Apponyi, brown eyes and "admirable teeth"; and Kossuth, whom she visited in Turin, fascinating blue eyes and a wonderful mouth ("une bouche merveilleuse"), to mention only a few of the traits minutely described.

—In place of the articles, common forty years ago, urging aspiring youth to cultivate their minds by foreign travel, we have of late years noticed numerous editorials and paragraphs pointing out the folly, if not wickedness, of wasting one's substance in foreign parts. Persons accustomed to breathe the pure air engendered by the democratic simplicity of American life, naturally cannot traverse the effete monarchies, etc. (and especially, we may suppose, come in contact with the pauper labor of those regions), without suffering for their temerity. But worse than this is the fact that this sort of thing diminishes the national wealth by we forget how many millions yearly, while incidentally it has an equally bad effect on domestic prosperity by failing to encourage domestic attractions, and thus secure a home market for local beauties. As misery loves company, we are, however, pleased to learn from an article by an elderly and respected Munich writer, Friedrich Pecht, which appears in a recent number of one of the new German magazines whose extraordinary success so disgusts Prof. Treitschke, that we are no worse off than some of our neighbors. The passion for foreign travel, remarks Mr. Pecht, constantly stimulated by improved means of communication, involves the greatest danger to the nation—moral as well as political. Not less than \$40,000,000 to \$60,000,000 are annually thus lost to Germany, and, as if this were not bad enough, "our railways don't pay, while innumerable hotels become bankrupt, and the enormous sums invested in these enterprises are absolutely lost. . . . The loss in patriotism, character, contentment, and domestic happiness is even greater. The more we enrich our neighbors by our folly, the more we increase their power and lessen our own." The rich who travel are culpable because they are "absentees"; but it is the middle class who themselves suffer. "The great majority of these travellers are persons with little leisure and less money—civil servants and teachers who thus employ their six-weeks' vacations—or persons with a small fixed income, business men, and even artisans, who indulge themselves in a holiday once in a lifetime." The enjoyment they get out of it is simply exasperating to Mr. Pecht. "For four weeks they live in a heaven upon earth. Under the palms of the Pincio, or on the pavement of the Boulevard Italien (*sic*) they realize that golden time of which they long have dreamed—a time without care for the present, or thought for the morrow. To them, all women are Helens, every dirty alley is pic-

turesque, every ragged beggar is a Murillo, every broken-windowed palace an architectural masterpiece." But when they come home, Mr. Pecht gets his revenge: "They are more tired and nervous than when they started, and after having luxuriated in dinners of six courses, they have to content themselves with what their wives [who evidently have been left behind] give them—boiled beef and cabbage. And when they take up their daily work, they find it ten times as hard as before." In short, at home, "where they have to earn their living, and, incidentally, to put up with the ill-humor of their official superiors or their wives, who did not accompany them," they are much worse off for their journey. It is only artists and scholars whom Mr. Pecht would allow to travel.

—About two years ago a young man of Russian descent and Cincinnati birth was standing one morning on a Parisian boulevard, wondering whatever was to become of him. He had only two francs in his pocket and had already tried in vain every means he could think of for getting a living. While he was contemplating the black prospect for him, a gentleman stepped up to a newspaper kiosk close by, received a copy of a paper costing two sous, laid down a franc in payment, and walked away. It was not for nothing that this young man had been born in America, since to witness this mysterious transaction was for him the same thing as to realize that there was place and fortune for a middleman between the two parties to it. The explanation, as he learned afterward, was that the gentleman was an artist, that the old woman carefully searched each morning's papers for any remarks upon his pictures, and that when she found one he gave her a franc for the paper containing it. What the apple was to Newton, or the deer's skull to Geoffroy Saint-Hilaire, this monetary spectacle on the boulevard was to Henry Romeike; in so far, at any rate, as it pointed the way to fame. He managed to get to London, invested his last penny in a copy of the *Daily Telegraph* during the picture season, cut out the notices of artists' works, and positively peddled them from studio to studio. The next day he was in a position to buy several papers, and the next week a large number, and to extend his operations to other persons than artists. At the present moment, so accurate was his *idée mère*, and so skilfully has he followed it up, that his handful of newspaper snippings has become nothing less than "The Artistic and Literary Correspondence, and Universal Compendium of the Press," with offices where a score of clerks, male and female, are busily engaged all day long in cutting up great heaps of newspapers, pasting the cuttings upon printed forms, and mailing them literally to all parts of the world.

—Three thousand English newspapers, 600 American ones, and several hundred published on the European continent are thus regularly searched through and dismembered under the direction of this ingenious American. The papers as they come in are examined by Romeike himself or one of his head clerks (French, German, Italian, and Russian are read in the office), passages referring to any person or subject on the books of the bureau are marked, numbered, and a printed slip, correspondingly numbered and having blank spaces for the date, name, and address of the newspaper, and name of the subscriber, is placed between the leaves, and finally the paper is handed to the boys or girls, who cut out the passages, stick them on the slips, enter them in a book, and mail them. The charge made for 100 notices—"To see ourselves as others see us" or on any matter whatever—is \$5, or \$20 for 500. From its humble beginnings, the "Artistic

and Literary Correspondence" has grown into an institution of recognized merit and importance. Among its 7,000 subscribers are a majority of the members of Parliament, numbers of actors, artists, novelists, poets, institutions, and every person who makes a hobby of any public matter. When Lord Dufferin was appointed Viceroy of India, he telegraphed to Romeike from Constantinople to forward him all allusions to India. Lord Randolph Churchill was provided with 8,000 cuttings about himself in eight months; Barzani received 1,000 notices of his white elephant in three days; Mr. Chamberlain has been supplied with opinions concerning the shipping legislation, and Lord Derby concerning New Guinea; the Irish members have a standing order for cuttings upon which troublesome questions to her Majesty's ministers may be founded. Not a few persons are actuated by the same motives as the lady (not the major's wife) who writes for all allusions to Major —, of the —th, now serving in Egypt; and Oscar Wilde, it need hardly be added in conclusion, has been a patron of the enterprise from the first.

—There is no other class of literature that throws into such strong relief the prodigious changes that have taken place in the last century as books of travel. Whoever reads Arthur Young's account of his short excursions in the South of England, or even Mme. Riedesel's description of her journey from her home to her husband in America, will have no difficulty in realizing that we are as far removed from the eighteenth century as the eighteenth was from the twelfth. To the information contained in this class of books a valuable addition has recently been made in Germany by the publication of the travels of the Countess of Kurland ('Elise v. d. Recke's Reisen durch Deutschland, 1784-1786, nach dem Tagebuch ihrer Begleiterin Sophie Becker': Stuttgart, Spemann). Coming to Germany in 1784, the Countess passed the first winter on the southern border of the Hartz Mountains, whence she made various expeditions to places of interest in the vicinity. A little later she visited Halberstadt, Weimar, Gotha, Erfurt, Leipzig, Dresden, Halle, Göttingen, Frankfurt, Hamburg, and Berlin. At all of these places her rank gave her immediate access to the most prominent people of the time. There is scarcely one of the literary men of the day then living in north Germany of whom some account is not given. Not a little light is thrown on the political discontents that were then showing themselves in Germany as well as in France. Göttingk remarked to his guest that it was a pity he could not show her a beheaded or a drawn and quartered prince. But the most interesting and valuable parts of the book are the descriptions and incidental notices of more or less trifling events. The keeper of the diary was not negligent of her work, and on the whole seems to have seen and heard with intelligent eyes and ears. What a journey was a hundred years ago is very clearly portrayed. There are some descriptions that remind the reader of Frederick the Great's famous visitations on the "sausage wagon," and even one or two that recall the earlier journey when Frederick the First's back was permanently crooked by the jolting of the carriage. An occasional upset or even the breaking of an axle was hardly worth mentioning, but when, as between Hanau and Brückenau, the carriage was overturned three times in the course of a few hours, and this variety was further spiced with the incidents of a broken axle and a ruined wheel, the matter was deemed worthy of especial note. A good measure of equanimity, however, was at all times preserved.

BAYARD TAYLOR.

Life and Letters of Bayard Taylor. Edited by Marie Hansen-Taylor and Horace E. Scudder. In two volumes. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1884.

It is so much a literary fashion to divide a man's life into periods of development, although they may not in reality differ from Shakspeare's Seven Ages, that one is often inclined to be impatient with such an exordium. In Bayard Taylor's growth, however, there seem to have been two lives, so marked was the change in his nature; and he has, in fact, left two reputations in consequence—one widespread and established, the other narrow in its range and of doubtful permanence. Out of the still farm life of the Quaker settlement in Chester County, where he was cradled into poetry in the midst of a simple and pure people and under the guardianship of a quiet and cheerful landscape, he came at a very early age into the excitement, the busy triviality, and incessant vicissitude of our earlier journalism; and having made a successful stroke at the start by his first book of travels, he won his way with rapidity and comparative ease to the position of best American reporter of scenes and incidents. This was what he called his service of mammon, and he said he hated it. But from the first there was a purely literary strain in his blood, a spring of poetic thought in his heart that would not be choked, and an effort of his will toward artistic expression of the best of his spirit. His early friends, the sponsors of his baptism before the muses, were not of the choicest. Rufus Wilmot Griswold was the editor to discover him; but for the youth to whom Griswold was a Mæcenas, the auguries were certainly of doubtful complexion; and when he found his Augustus in the person of the natty Willis, the odds against his making a man of himself were to be counted off only by his innate virtue and the vigor of his mind. It is as good, at least, as one of his own novels to see from his youthful letters how much he prized the first literary society into which he was admitted, the New York coterie of mutual admiration and secret envy, of which here and there in our literary annals some mention may still be found under the name of "the Literati," as they called themselves. Taylor was so far imposed on by it as to write of "that charmed circle of artist and author life, which is the only real life of this world," and he was in middle life before he decried it as under-bred, half-refined, and superficially cultivated. Perhaps his travels, by removing him from the danger of constantly breathing this atmosphere, served him better than he knew. However that may have been, it is enough to beget a charitable spirit in one to remember that in his youth the *Tribune* was his taskmaster and Willis the high-priest of his cult.

Taylor quickly enlarged his circle through the opportunities of travel and the readiness and freshness of his instincts for fraternity. He made friends with everybody he met, and one might almost say with every creature, even to savage beasts. He enlarged his mind, too, and on returning from his visit to the East he was able to draw to himself an audience distinctly his own. Money flowed in from books, lectures, and successful investments, and he built Cedar-croft and settled down in the expectation that fortune would continue to shower gifts upon him. He was soon to be ready, he thought, to be a poet; he had been making sure of his bread first, and now he would make sure of his fame. But the war came; and when it was gone there was a new nation, and Taylor found he had outlived his early reputation and had lost his own audience. Trouble in one form or another was at hand. His manor-house on the paternal acres

was a millstone round his neck; and finally, after a long struggle of incessant hard work at book-making, he went back to his hack-life on the *Tribune*, from which he was relieved by his appointment to the German court and his speedy death. In the latter part of his career he had translated 'Faust' and written long poems, and it was for these works that he cared; for he had learned by experience the ephemeral nature of a traveller's reputation, and he desired most ardently to leave an enduring name. The mass of his writings is very large, but his heart was in his poetry only; the rest was what he called mere pot-boiling literature. In these last years, too, there was an expansion of his intellectual nature and a sharpening of his artistic perception, due in large measure to his study of Goethe, who overmastered his mind and determined the character of the latest products of his genius. It was from the Goethean point of view that he looked down almost contemptuously on the earlier period of his literary activity, and looked forward and up to the future work of his hands, the true work, which was to prolong his memory among men. His death was thus, he would have thought, as truly premature as if he had died in youth. Hope was so strong in him that when past fifty the best of his life seemed still before him.

The most prominent point in the popular conception of Bayard Taylor is that he was a man of great vitality; and, as is frequently the case, the people have seized on the main characteristic. The activity of his mind was enormous, and it may fairly be said that it was the overflow of physical health in no small degree. But just as he would say that the public did not see that he could not be so good a traveller had he not been a poet, so the vital force that enabled him to grasp and master such masses of work would never have sustained him had he not been buoyed up also by an eagerness of the spirit. The trait which these volumes reveal on nearly every page, from the days of youthful ardor to those of untiring manhood, is aspiration of the most unflinching and incorruptible kind. Whether Taylor succeeded or not in realizing the fondest wish of his heart, to be known as one of his country's great poets, there is no doubt that he always was working upward to the plane of their life with a high, firm purpose that grew more strong and simple at each turn of his worldly fortune. It was because of this aspiration that the difference between his first and second period has so marked a character as to seem a difference between two lives; he left his youthful environment and all that it contained behind him, and rose out of "the Literati" into literature.

It belongs to this strong aspiration, too, that he was so avaricious of praise, hoarded up his commendations from "the poets," and overvalued their meaning. He was all his days hungry for recognition; he welcomed it from any quarter, and repaid it profusely with his own good-will. It was not vanity that made him listen so keenly for applause; it was not self-conceit that was bred in him by the praise he got; and yet it is not a pleasant characteristic to meet with when one finds the hero so anxious for the roses. It made some people misunderstand and dislike Taylor in his lifetime, and there is in it certainly some proof that he was without the assurance that goes with matured genius of high order. A discomfortable doubt of his position always haunted him, and this made him prize distinction of an outward kind, and practically look to his friends to mint his coin with their royal approval. The trait of the parvenu, too, is very disagreeably conspicuous in the attitude of his mind toward the great men whom he met, and particularly in his pleasure at being favored by Bismarck and others whose worldly position

attracted his respectful admiration. It is said that we all like titles, and perhaps he shared a national weakness; but it would seem rather that this regard for the aristocratic was another phase of his desire to be admitted to an inner circle, as if he were in some way accredited by such an admission.

To meet at once a second questionable trait, he was always self-absorbed, engaged mainly in his own affairs, with a word now and then for others and what they were doing and hoping, but nevertheless, kindly and cordial though he was, essentially preoccupied with his plans and deeds. He was too busy, in fact, to think about other matters than his own; he had no time. Of course he was not lacking in any liberality to his kindred and his friends; he gave what he had—his good-fortune, his hospitality, the favor of his name, the good-will of his heart—everything except his thoughts. For this reason the letters here published are concerned, more than is usual in this class of writing, with private and temporary details—his new ventures in material or literary affairs, and especially with what he was going to do; for he was more attentive to the future than to the present. Thus one comes about again to what was the leading mark, the saving power of his life—his irrepressible aspiration, of which his deference to authority and his engrossing interest in the development of himself were, in part, results. It is not necessary to point out how fit such a nature was to imbibe the ideas of Goethe and incorporate them in his own life.

Throughout the latter part of his career Bayard Taylor evidently felt much aggrieved by the fact that the people judged him by his achievements in the lower walk of literature. At first, when his mental horizon was still bounded by a foreign landscape, he was pleased to be known as the most successful traveller of his age, and, if he dipped into poetry, as he could not help doing, he wrote a Californian ballad. But after "the age of sensations and short poems," as he called it, was gone by, and especially after he had translated "Faust," he sent letters to the *Tribune* for pay only, and occupied himself with the ambition of composing, not epics, to be sure, but a "cosmic poem"—one or more, according to the length of his life, for there was never any question in his own mind that he was inexhaustible. The experience he had acquired in outgrowing the bonds of his early education and breaking away from the formulas of Chester County life, and his observations of the creeds of alien races, with the knowledge thus impressed upon him as to the contingencies of religious dogma, had made a foundation in his mind for a poem of philosophic scope, and he wrote one or two of such a character. They may have been "cosmic," but they were not popular, and since his death they have not grown in esteem. Some of the Arab lyrics will outlive "Prince Deucalion."

Without undertaking to decide whether Taylor's complaint that the people looked on him as a traveller primarily and as a poet only secondarily, was just or not, one may make one or two observations on his poetic method. He wrote with great facility, and his final composition was unusually rapid, but the subject, he frequently declares, was for years in his mind slowly taking shape and was at last suddenly developed. He speaks of poems as of other literary work—a newspaper article or a review for example—as if they could be made to order: so many last week, so many to be ready by such a day next month; and similarly of long poems: he will be through at such a date, and there will be so many lines—and this he knows before the draft is completed. These trifles are straws, but they show a good deal; and from them and other hints the impression is left on the mind that Taylor chose his sub-

ject first and wrote about it afterward, and the availability of any particular subject from the supply he had always in his mind, was determined by various considerations other than that need for expression which is the only true inspiration. The great poets are more likely to name their verses after they are composed, and to have the substance of thought or passion before they cast about for a heading. Shelley's "Prometheus Unbound" is only the "Paradise Regained" of a new age—the lyric for the epic, the Greek for the Jewish, the human for the puritanic; but the idea, the same Messianic one that "springs eternal in the human breast." Bayard Taylor, on the other hand, apparently thought of a "cosmic poem" first and of what he should say in it afterward. It is also significant that in his later poems he was so much given to symbolism. To a genius of the loftiest order, like Goethe, allegory is merely a mode of expression; the thought is thus conveyed by a symbol, but the thought is far more than the symbol, and is no more contained in it than an elemental force is contained in a single phenomenon. To minds of a lower rank, like Rossetti's, symbolization itself is a mode of thinking rather than of expression; the symbol gives rise to the thought instead of the thought to the symbol. The instrument of poetry is, of course, concrete images in all cases, though not necessarily visual ones; but to poets in whom intellectual power is preëminent, images are a language, while to poets of lower rank the images themselves are the poetry. Many a time in literature we have had rhymesters who strung similes and metaphors, and thought they were producing poems; similarly, since Goethe's time, we have had thinkers, both mystic and scientific, who string symbols and allegories and believe they are composing philosophy in verse.

It would be unjust to say that Taylor was merely one of these latter, but he helps us to understand them. The mode of poetic composition he chose in "Prince Deucalion" was of this kind; it requires the very highest intellectual genius to employ it successfully, and he failed. When he was appointed Minister to Germany he was felt to be the representative of our journalists rather than of our literary men, and the publication of "Prince Deucalion" shortly afterward confirmed the view. This last drama of his life is dwelt on because it marks his line of development, and was one of the mainstays of his hope of immortality in literature. He wrote much better poems when his mind was not filled with such large ambition. But whether his fame shall prove to be transitory, and to rest still on his muscles and pluck and vivacity as when he was thirty years old, the history of his later career is that of a very noble effort to achieve the highest, and together with it a constant and toilsome fulfilment of the duties of his material life as a man with bread to earn. In outliving the era when reputations were easily won, he entered on a harder career, and bore himself in it in a way to win respect from his successors as largely as he won affection from his contemporaries.

STANWOOD'S PRESIDENTIAL ELECTIONS.

A History of Presidential Elections. By Edward Stanwood. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1884.

THE more we look back upon the work of the men who established the Constitution of the United States, and upon the results which have followed from it, the more wonderful it seems. As one feature of it, that the chief ruler of a great nation should have been regularly and peacefully elected every four years, not even excepting the period of the civil war, for nearly a century, and that by a popular vote swelling

from 360,000 in 1824, the first given in this book, to 9,200,000 in 1880, is a thing without parallel in the history of the world. It seems hardly possible to recite the story without giving way to an occasional flight of imagination. But Mr. Stanwood has resisted any such temptation; he has given us a severely prosaic account, and has left the reader to draw his own inferences. The first thing which strikes us is the steady tendency to throw the decision into the hands of the people. It is commonly remarked that the electors were at first supposed to be a certain number of judicious and discreet men, to be selected on general principles by the people, and that these men were to agree upon the two men who seemed to them fittest to govern the nation—in other words, it was an election in the second degree. But the electors are now a mere matter of form, the choice being made directly by the people between the nominees of conventions. Under the former theory, the choice of electors by districts had some meaning, which disappeared under the latter. Accordingly, while in 1824 eleven of the twenty-four States pursued a different course, by 1832 all except Maryland and South Carolina chose electors by popular vote at large, or what the French call *scrutin de liste*. And there was still another change in the same direction: the Constitution left to the State Legislatures to prescribe the mode of choosing electors; but whereas in 1796 in ten out of sixteen States, and in 1824 in six out of twenty-four, the electors were appointed by the Legislature, in 1832, without any amendment to the Constitution, every one of the twenty-four had assigned the choice of electors to the people, except South Carolina, which retained choice by the Legislature till 1860, though Maryland still adhered to the district system. An irresistible tide has carried this great question out of the control of local cliques into that of the whole nation, and the question became and still is, How is this enormous and increasing mass of votes to be influenced and directed?

The drift under this head forms another item of interest. Washington was the obvious first choice of the nation, and Jefferson and Adams followed in a rather natural line of succession, but it soon became evident that some means of guiding the popular choice must be resorted to. "The first caucus of members of Congress for the nomination of Presidential candidates was held on the 25th of February, 1804," and the call was addressed to the Republican members of the two houses. They met and nominated Jefferson unanimously, and Clinton "by a very large majority." The Federalists agreed—it is not known where or by whom the agreement was made—to support Pinckney and King. In 1816 Mr. Clay made a motion in the caucus that it was not expedient to nominate candidates, and in 1824 the caucus which nominated Crawford and Gallatin formed the last instance of this method. At the same period Clay was nominated by the members of the Kentucky Legislature, and Jackson by a mass convention of the people of Blount County, Tenn. J. Q. Adams was nominated by the Legislatures of most of the New England States, Mr. Clinton by several counties in Ohio, Mr. Calhoun by the Legislature of South Carolina, Mr. Crawford by the Legislature of Virginia. In October, 1825—that is, three years before the next election—Jackson was nominated by the Tennessee Legislature, followed by similar nominations from conventions and meetings in all parts of the country.

The first National Convention was held by the Anti-Masons in September, 1830. The other parties followed the example, and "thus was established the convention system of nominations and the practice of adopting a platform of principles." As delegates are elected to these conventions from

the whole country, it seems the method most adapted for the expression of the will of the people, and it has the further advantage that a serious discussion of candidates is postponed till within a few months of the election, and the country has at least a part of the four years in peace. But there are signs that we are outgrowing this system also. The habit of compromise upon unknown men, and the occupancy of the White House for four years by a figure-head (though this is really only in part a result of the system), have made the people very impatient, while the stupendous farce of platforms has brought in the element of ridicule, the most fatal to any system. The incredible platitudes of these manifestoes, covering in some cases several pages of fine print, can best be appreciated when they are brought together as in this book. The purest generalities, so adjusted as to give the least possible offence, are prepared by a committee whom nobody knows, and left to stand on their own legs. They have not the slightest binding force either upon Congress or the President, and are generally never heard of after the first flourish of trumpets. It is manifest that some change is impending; and the probable direction, strikingly illustrated by the events of the last year, is that strong individualities, with policies, good or bad, of their own, will force themselves upon the attention of the country, and therefore of the conventions.

Another curious reflection is, how the political sense of the country tends to the organization and maintenance of two political parties. We have been tempted to collate the tables given in this book, and the result is not without interest. The first popular vote given is that of 1824, a fact itself of interest as showing how gradually the popular will began to receive attention:

	Total Popular Vote.	Per Cent. to	Cand.	Plates.
1824.....	356,038	43	31	13
1828.....	1,155,340	56	44	
1832.....	1,217,691	56	44	
1836.....	1,498,329	51	49	
1840.....	2,411,137	63	47	0.29
1844.....	2,008,905	59	47.8	2.29
1848.....	2,871,906	47	43	10
1852.....	3,143,679	51	44	5
1856.....	4,053,967	45	33	22
1860.....	4,680,193	39	29	18
1864.....	4,196,037	59	44	
1868.....	5,716,082	53	47	
1872.....	6,466,354	55.6	43.9	0.4
1876.....	8,411,019	51	48	0.9
1880.....	9,218,251	48.32	48.22	3.34

Note how closely, during three elections, covering twelve years, the proportion of public opinion was maintained, till in 1840 a cloud appeared, no bigger than a man's hand, in the first nomination of an abolition party (which, by the way, was not Birney and Lemoyne, as stated on page 135, but Birney and Earle); then how this canker began to eat into the solid mass of party, till it ended in the explosion of 1860. With 1864 begins again the division into two compact masses, till in 1872 a new divergence sets in. The figures for 1884 will form an instructive addition to this table.

We will sink one more shaft into this mine of raw material. It is obvious that the counting of ten millions of votes is a very serious matter; but this becomes infinitely worse when it is considered that each State prescribes the mode of appointment of its electors, and that a certified list of these, transmitted to Washington, forms the basis of the count. In case of a disputed election, or a technical informality in any State, the two houses of Congress have to decide what votes shall be counted; and in view of the immense interests involved, and the violence of party conflict, the danger of this state of things is apparent. The history of the Electoral Commission which seated President Hayes, while the country was filled with alarm, furnishes ample explanation of the paralysis which affects all business in a Presidential year. From the earliest time repeated efforts have been made—notably by Senator Morton in 1874-5—to arrive at

some establishment of an arbitrating tribunal; but they have all failed, owing mainly to the impossibility of concerted action between the two branches. A bill which gets through the Senate fails in the House, and vice versa. It is one of innumerable instances of the necessity of stronger executive government, of a responsible Cabinet, who, backed by the country, can force through Congress measures demanded by the welfare of the nation.

We have by no means exhausted the inferences to be drawn from this valuable book, which is most timely in its appearance and full of instruction for those who will read between the lines.

CHILDREN'S BOOKS.—II.

THE four volumes by Mrs. Helen W. Pierson, respectively a History of the United States, of England, of France, of Germany, in words of one syllable (Geo. Routledge & Sons), must be thought a *tour de force* by any one who considers the self-imposed trammels of the compiler. They are clever performances, and calculated to interest the childish reader, while, at the same time, it may be doubted whether the infant who requires such condescension in the style is a fit subject for the teaching of history; or, conversely, whether, if he can understand the history, he cannot read words of the ordinary variety of length without difficulty. As a matter of fact, the one-syllable rule has to be broken constantly: only one of the countries treated of has a monosyllabic name, while proper names of two and three syllables of course appear at every turn. This makes such paraphrases as "home of those who have lost their wits" for "Bedlam" or "insane asylum" ('Germany,' p. 216)—eight syllables against two or four—seem somewhat absurd. The matter can seldom be seriously objected to. In the 'France,' rather too much of the Napoleonic glamour is thrown around the late Prince Imperial, and there is no excuse for saying, on p. 206, of the Mexican patriots, that "these fierce, bad men rose up, and took Max-i-mil-i-an and shot him. His poor wife lost her mind from grief. They were a good and true young pair, and would have done what was right by all." However, on the next page occurs the sound remark, on the beginning of the war against Prussia, "The worst sign was that no one told the truth." We are glad to have our infants thus taught the value of truthfulness, which so many gray-haired Americans have lately been denying; and, in the 'United States,' to have the story of Washington and his hatchet once more revived. All these books are brought down to date, and are well if not very freshly illustrated.

'Little Arthur's History of England,' by Lady Calcott (T. Y. Crowell & Co.), "was written for a real little Arthur," and contains just the things that a judicious mother would tell to a child. It is in a simple, pleasant style, intelligible to children, and is full of the stories that children love; at the same time it has a seriousness of tone quite removed from the flippancy that characterizes parts of Dickens's 'Child's History,' and the child is not treated as incapable of enjoying something besides stories. It is a pity that such incidents as the branding of Elgiva's cheek, and Shakspeare's story of Hubert and Arthur, are told as if they were unquestioned history. The illustrations are not especially good.

Louis Rousselet's 'Ralph the Drummer-Boy' (Henry Holt & Co.) is an account of the adventures of a French lad of sixteen while serving in the Revolution with the force under Rochambeau. As a book of adventures in the manner of Jules Verne, it is fairly interesting; but it is utterly wanting in local color, and has less than no value as an historical story. Arnold, who is

persistently called the "hero of Behms (Bemis)," is made a mere stage villain. Among other exploits, he steals into the American camp by night to murder Washington, who is rescued, of course, by the French drummer-boy. After the surrender of Yorktown he is dragged before Washington by Ralph, who has taken him prisoner, and in a highly melodramatic scene is ordered to immediate execution, but is rescued from the gallows by the English Colonel Tarleton. It should be said that a note informs the reader of the fictitious character of this part of the book. It would have been well also, in our opinion, in a story translated for American boys, to have denied the statement made on page 181, in reference to a mutiny of the New Jersey troops, that "a whole battalion had to be surrounded and decimated." We cannot praise the work of the translator, as in places it betrays either ignorance or carelessness.

Of an entirely different character from the preceding is 'Captain Phil,' by M. M. Thomas (Henry Holt & Co.). The hero is an orphan lad who accompanies his older brother, a soldier in an Ohio regiment, during the whole of the civil war. He goes with the three months' troops to Washington, and is present at the first battle of Bull Run. Afterwards he joins the Western army, then under General Rosecrans, remains with it during the pursuit first of Bragg and afterwards of Johnston, and is in the battles of Shiloh, Murfreesboro, and Chickamauga, and in the "march to the sea." No detailed description of the various campaigns is attempted, the author's aim being to give merely a picture of the daily life of a Union soldier. In this he has succeeded admirably. All the phases of camp life, its humors and its hardships, the peculiarities of the different men, their talk, their songs, their heroism, often their simple piety, are represented with a graphic force and truthfulness worthy of great praise. Scattered throughout the book are incidents, almost every one of which, Mr. Thomas assures us, "is a real experience," of courage and devotion displayed on the battlefield and especially after the battle, in rescuing or in succoring the wounded. Equally well done are the descriptions of the contrabands and the poor whites, and the scenery of the country through which the army passed. The interest of the book, which is well sustained up to the fall of Atlanta, flags somewhat in the account of Sherman's famous raid. Here the story is hurriedly told, and the lack of incident is apparently made up by unnecessarily detailed accounts of the destruction wrought by the army during its march through Georgia and South Carolina. A map of the country in which the Western army operated would have added much to the value of 'Captain Phil.' The style is simple, straightforward, and such as a boy would use in narration. Though just published, the preface is dated March, 1866.

It is natural to find the name of Drake on the title-page of a book about Indians. Mr. Francis S. Drake's 'Indian History for Young Folks' (Harpers) might have alleged an hereditary justification for itself, but the author prefers to put it forward as a "lesson," which "shows conclusively the superiority of the civilized man over the savage, even in those warlike arts in which the latter most excelled," and which shows also "in some small degree the cost and the value of the peaceful, happy homes we now enjoy." There are, to our thinking, much better and less commonplace lessons to be drawn from the history of the Indians in this country, and we cannot think it a service to children to rehearse exhaustively their bloody record, even when this is done in a humane spirit and mixed with a certain amount of ethnological information. The story of the removal of the Creeks and Cherokees, of

which the foul injustice is barely hinted at on p. 176, would have borne expansion into a chapter instead of a paragraph or two, and the iniquity of the Seminole War might also have been more fully pointed out, and a reference given to Giddings's history of this war, which is singularly overlooked in the customary bibliographical footnote. In an extraordinary passage—almost like an interpolation, so much is it out of key with the author's general way of regarding the aborigines—Mr. Drake avers (p. 431) that "the Indian has no code of morals, no conception of right and wrong; bad and good are the words nearest in meaning to these." No wonder, therefore, that his narrative is not made to include the recent triumph of General Crook over the Apaches, in which the possession of a moral code on both sides was so brilliantly exemplified; or can there be good faith without a "conception of right and wrong"? We know of nothing in the relations of Blaine to Mulligan which will compare with those existing between General Crook and his late formidable foes! In the domain of Indian adventure, we are surprised that Mr. Drake has drawn nothing from Lewis and Clark. So many men who became eminent in civil life, or who won a military reputation in other fields, had at one time or another to do with the Indians, that Mr. Drake's volume embraces a large province of American biography; and this is among the chief of its merits. The illustrations are very numerous and of diverse quality; the so-called portraits of the early explorers, Columbus not excepted, ought certainly not to have been admitted.

'The Viking Bodleys' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) is the latest and last of Mr. Horace E. Scudder's Bodley books. The Vikings are a family party of six New Englanders, who are not at all savage, or predatory, or reckless of comfort. They put up at the best hotels, exhibit the modern civilized interest in pictures and statues and books, and go constantly in search of literary reminiscences. Altogether, their title to the formidable name they assume is shared by all persons who cross the North Sea or travel along its coast for amusement and instruction. Mr. Scudder has attempted to differentiate his travellers from ordinary tourists by giving a definite aim to their wanderings—this aim being to discover connecting links between the Old World and the New, or, in other words, to search for the footprints of their ancestors. The Vikings cross from Hull to Christiania, travel thence by rail to Thronbjem, thence by steamer to Hammerfest and the North Cape. Here the tourist's dread enemy, fog, interferes with their plan of seeing the midnight sun shining across the Arctic Ocean; they set their faces southward, and finally reach Copenhagen. The descriptions are vivid and interesting, and the temptation to gush is steadily resisted. Small talk and family banter flow freely at all times and places, and not a Bodley of them all ever shows any signs of being overawed. The result is a sufficiently realistic picture, not only of the places visited and the impressions received, but also of the way in which average well-bred people talk and act while sight-seeing. We are sometimes puzzled, however, to know how old a public Mr. Scudder has in his mind's eye. But it is not best to press this point. Children of a smaller growth will perhaps skip some of the learning, and those of a larger growth the frivolity; but young people of all ages will be pleased with the fluent narrative and with the excellent woodcuts, both large and small, with which the book is adorned.

The scene of the 'Story of Viteau,' by Frank R. Stockton (Chas. Scribner's Sons), is laid in Burgundy in the year 1236. At the beginning of the tale, the younger of the two sons of the

widowed Countess of Viteau is captured by one of the bands of robbers which infested France at that epoch. He finally escapes only to find that his mother and brother have been obliged to flee from the officers of the Inquisition, which had just been established at Toulouse. The castle is then taken by the robbers, and the boys go to Paris to intercede for their mother, who is accused of holding heretical opinions, with the young King St. Louis. The story ends happily with the recapture of Viteau and the destruction of the robber band. There is, it will be evident, no lack of stirring incident, and the interest of the reader is kept alive from the beginning to the end. The author has wisely, in our opinion, refrained from the attempt to imitate the speech of those days, and all the characters talk naturally and simply. It is a thoroughly good story, though of rather slight texture.

The audience, of young and old, whom Mr. Augustus Hoppin captivated with his 'Auton House'—may their number never grow less—will experience no disappointment on reading his 'Two Compton Boys' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). We have again a graphic picture of Providence, and to a considerable extent of New England, life in the youth of men now just past the middle age, and one which the historian may accept as implicitly as any chronicle he is likely to depend upon. But whereas in 'Auton House' we were made acquainted with the *vie intime* of a single family, in 'Two Compton Boys' the scenes are mostly away from home (not the same home, if one may guess), at school and abroad, and there is something like the evolution of a plot with half a tragedy. The humor remains, the comical illustrations are renewed, and an hour of profitable relaxation can be promised any one who follows the fortunes of Dick Reydon and his sable *alter ego*, Peez Pitts. A wholesome lesson in humanity is indirectly inculcated, for it cannot be said that on the subject of color prejudice the rising generation is beyond the need of religious instruction. The one false note, as it seems to us, in this delightful narrative, is the praise of his own son's manliness in open court by his father. There was a joy to be felt and not to be spoken. And even if we are assured by our genial chronicler that in this incident, as in the case of others which he apologetically records, he is simply faithful to the truth of history, we shall still reply that suppression or alteration would have been better. The artist takes the same liberty with nature when he eliminates an ugly feature from an otherwise picturesque landscape.

The subject of 'Oliver Optic's' last book, 'Square and Compasses,' the third of the 'Boat Builder Series' (Boston: Lee & Shepard), is the adventures of the students of an industrial school, and the endeavor is made to teach the value of discipline, and "to interest young people in the mechanic arts." The author is more successful, however, in describing their contests with the "ruffianly" Chesterfield boys and Topovers, than in making either interesting or easily intelligible their method of framing a building.

"It would seem a pity if the increase of poetry for the young should cause them to commit less to memory; for a poem learned in childhood becomes a portion of the child." When we read these words in Mrs. Helen Kendrick Johnson's 'Illustrated Poems and Songs for Young People' (Geo. Routledge & Sons), we were filled with hope for the contents of the pretty volume. And indeed there are many pieces in it which any child would be the better for committing to heart. But along with these what a motley assortment of verses which can have no other effect than to cultivate a low standard of taste, and some of which ought to be by no means learned by rote, and some to be forgotten as speedily as possible lest they do become "a portion of the

child." It is but too common to observe how the makers of collections like this, and of text-books as well, lose sight of everything but what is entertaining or morally instructive for the young. They thus abdicate the function of discrimination in style and subject which is most necessary in the teacher if the child is to acquire a preference for elevating literature, and an instinctive recognition of it. The moral side of this function is invisible to the generality both of parents and school-book makers and instructors.

The English version of Édouard Laboulaye's 'Fairy Tales' (Geo. Routledge & Sons) will be heartily welcomed. Here the choice is excellent, and the narrative has the literary quality which made the reputation of the genial compiler. The pictures, too, are good of their kind—of French origin, like the text—though, to be sure, they have settled, like plums in a pudding, to one end of the book. The translation is fluent and idiomatic, so far as the tales proper are concerned, but a defective intelligence is manifested in rendering the charming little discourses which Laboulaye prefixed to some of his stories. Thus, on one page (49) we meet with "Rongé" for Rougé; with Panchatantra transformed into "Pancha Zantra," in a connection ("the learned commentary of Pancha Zantra") which makes the venerable work appear to be a man; and with "Wak Stephanovitch," which, following Laboulaye, is declared a household name in France. On page 75 this name is repeated in a new form, "Vonk Stepanovitch," and sorely will it puzzle the infant student to identify the two with one another and with the real Vuk Stefanovitch Karajitch. Equally grotesque is the bestowal of a tenth muse, "Enterpius," on the history of Herodotus, as is done on page 61. Happily, these inexcusable slips occur in just those portions which are intentionally a little above the heads of our youngsters, who will consequently pass them by—wit, blunders, and all.

The Early Records of Lancaster, Mass., 1643-1725. Edited by Henry S. Nourse, A.M. Lancaster. 1884.

THIS work is of the same high grade with Mr. Walcott's 'Concord in the Colonial Period,' lately noticed by us. It represents probably an even greater laboriousness of research, being an attempt to reconstruct the town records of Lancaster prior to 1726, in which, besides other lacunae, there is a broad gap of forty-six years. The history has been made good, as far as may be, chiefly from court records and the State archives, and we do not know where to look for a better example of editorial work, or a more perfect typographical conception and execution. The annals of Lancaster possess less human interest than those of Concord, but some connection exists between them. When the Indians, in King Philip's war, raided and burnt the former town so that it had to be temporarily abandoned, and the Rev. Mr. Rowlandson had the grief to lose his wife and children among the captives, it was John Hoar, of Concord, who effected their ransom, having deservedly the confidence of the savages. It cannot be said that the Indians had a peculiar spite against the clergy in Lancaster, but true it is that one of the victims in the raid of September 11, 1697, was the Rev. John Whiting, and that when the town was beset in October, 1704, the Rev. Andrew Gardner, "coming down from the watchbox in the night with a darkish colored gown, was mistaken for an Indian & solemnly slain by a sorry souldier belonging to the Garrison nomine Presket." Twice the dusky marauders burnt the meeting-house on the west side of the town, and damaged the cause of religion by inspiring an attempt to erect a new house on the safer east side, out of which grew

an injunction, frequent appeals to the Legislature, and a "damnifying" of the frame of the unfinished house; to say nothing of the discomfort of holding meeting in the minister's house, with a larger audience outside than in, and the outside acoustics decidedly bad. The town, by the way, is memorable as having early established a mode of arbitration "in Actions of Debt or Damages one towards another either in name or state, . . . except in cases Cappittall or Criminal."

The Apostle Eliot appears in these pages, visiting the hopefully converted Nashaways (after whom and their river the town was originally named), and again deploring that "Sathan hath so emboldened the Pauwauces" among them that the pow-wow was revived. The same diabolical agency had been manifested at the very beginning of the settlement, when Dr. Robert Child, of Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, England, petitioned for the enlargement of political and religious privilege, and was incontinently driven back across seas. Somewhat later, Satan possessed the mind of Elizabeth, the wife of John Hall, who perplexed a visitor from Cambridge, Mass., with the demand "whether all things were not common now as in the apostles tyme, & before that Sr. Phillips could give answer she did further say that this is my judgment, that all things are common, mens wivies alsoe"—a distinct forecast of the Oneida Community. That Lancaster was still regarded, in witchcraft time, as a refuge for the minions of the Evil One, is shown in the case of John Willard, who, says Calef,

"had been employed to fetch in several that were accused; but taking dissatisfaction from his being sent to fetch up some that he had better thoughts of, he declined the Service, and presently after he himself was accused of the same Crime, and that with such vehemency that they sent after him to apprehend him: he had made his Escape as far as *Nashawag*, about 40 miles from *Salem*: yet tis said those Accusers did then presently tell the exact time, saying now *Willard* is taken."

We commend this primitive case of telepathy to the Society for Psychic Research.

Steven Day had stood up for Goodwife Hall as long as he could, acting as a sort of buffer between her accuser, his neighbor Whaley in Cambridge, and herself, a neighbor of his grandson Boardman in Lancaster, whom he often visited. His tribulations as a printer receive proper mention in this volume, his being the first press set up in America north of Mexico. Dr. Trumbull has shown, by the way, that the patron who brought him over was the Rev. Jose or Josse (not Jesse) Glover. The allotment of lands and the laying out of roads are also carefully elucidated by Mr. Nourse. "When, in 1734," he tells us, "Captain Jonas Houghton, the Lancaster surveyor, was employed by the proprietors of *Nichewaug* to reconstruct the road from Lancaster along the north side of Wachusett, the contract test for acceptance of this highway was that it should be 'so feasible . . . as to carry comfortably, with four oxen, four barrels of cider at once.'" A good inspector of this road would have been the Rev. Mr. John Prentice, for whom Judge Joseph Wilder in 1728 made sixty-one barrels of cider, or just one-tenth of his total product as taken up by twenty-three of his townsmen.

The Organs of Speech. By George Hermann von Meyer. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 349.

Voice, Song, and Speech. By Lennox Browne, F. R. C. S., and Emil Behnke. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Pp. 322.

THE author of the first of these books, who is Professor of Anatomy at the University of Zurich, is convinced that philologists should be

thoroughly acquainted with the structure and functions of the organs of speech, but that "the ordinary anatomical handbooks are little adapted to this purpose, for much is there discussed at length which is of no use to the philologist." The first thing which strikes one in looking over Professor Meyer's volume is that the same criticism applies to it also. It bristles with anatomical details which are thoroughly accurate and true, no doubt, but which have only an exceedingly remote bearing on the immediate topic in hand. One consequence of this is that the author's hope that his treatise will be welcomed by musicians is doomed to disappointment, for no musician would ever dream of reading such a book through, while there are others not a few that give all the necessary facts in a quarter of the compass, and in a much more interesting form. Philologists, on the other hand, who are accustomed to deal with dry data, will find in the third chapter a convenient summary of the facts concerning the formation of articulate sounds. If, perchance, a reader of some other profession should get the book into his hands, he may find something to attract him in the full account given between pages 174 and 180 of the processes of gaping, stammering, sighing, sneezing, coughing, and laughing. Gaping is thus described:

"The whole phenomenon seems an indication of strong desire for air; and the existence of this desire under these circumstances in which gaping is generally observed—sleepiness, for instance, or weariness—may be perfectly explained as follows: Such circumstances are accompanied by a general inactivity of the nervous system, which shows itself in a weak respiratory action, insufficient for the body when awake, so that after a time a more or less marked desire for air must arise, the demand for which is announced by gaping."

From this it would seem to follow that if there is a desire to gape where it would be impolite to do so, the danger might be averted by making a sudden deep inspiration. But however valuable such an inference from the author's statements may be, it must be admitted that they have nothing to do with the subject of the book, of which the full title is: 'The Organs of Speech and their Application in the Formation of Articulate Sounds.' The one art which German professors have not yet learned is the elimination of irrelevant facts.

Quite different in character is the joint production of Dr. Browne and Mr. Behnke, which is described as "a practical guide for singers and speakers from the combined view of vocal surgeon and voice trainer," and which does unite these functions admirably. A striking feature of the work is the numerous photographs of the vocal organs, illustrating their action during the formation of tones of various pitch. The first chapter, entitled "A Plea for Vocal Physiology," contains the best summary we know of the reasons why vocalists should have a thorough knowledge of the physiological processes involved in singing. Such arguments are often met by the retort that some of the greatest vocalists were ignorant of the facts in question. But this only proves that one who is born with a special aptitude can find his way by a sort of instinct, whereas the vast majority, who have no such gift, can learn from physiology numerous hints which will greatly facilitate and abbreviate their labors. Very clear and readable is the brief account given of Helmholtz's discoveries, and of the mechanism by which tone is produced in various instruments. In the chapter on the "Hygienic Aspect of the Vocal Apparatus," attention is paid to the importance of nose-breathing and the dangers of tight lacing, which last not only deprives the lungs of one-third of the air that would normally enter them, but injures the quality of the voice, and mars the gracefulness of motion:

"In the ball-room the ungraceful motions of our stiff-figured ladies are bad enough; there is no possibility for poetry of motion; but nowhere is this more ludicrously and (to the thoughtful) painfully manifest than in the tennis court. Let any one watch the movements of ladies as compared with those of male players, and the absolute ugliness of the female figure, with its stiff, unyielding, deformed, round waist, will at once be seen."

Perhaps an aesthetic *argumentum ad feminam* of this sort will prove more effective than the efforts of hygienists and dress reformers. Clergyman's sore-throat and other ailments of the voice-user are described with directions for their cure; and in the "Daily Life of the Voice-User" minute directions are given concerning diet, clothing, exercise, amusements, stimulants, ablutions, etc.

Three Visits to America. By Emily Faithfull. Fowler & Wells Co.

AFTER twenty years of work in aid of her countrywomen, Miss Faithfull came here to study the position and opportunities of women, socially, intellectually, and industrially. In this record of her three visits (which consists of articles published at different times in English and American papers, with addition of considerable new material), she brings to our notice many important facts in relation to the matters which she has most at heart, but does not confine herself to them. She gives also an entertaining account of her pleasant social experiences, of the many noted people whom she met, and of her enjoyments and discomforts in travelling; not to speak of touches of political disquisition, which are apt to be tedious, as for example the far too long chapter on Mormonism.

On first opening the book we are struck by its great discursiveness. In her desire to omit nothing of interest, and to follow out connected subjects, the author passes so abruptly from one scene to another, and pays so little regard to orderly sequence, that a sense of confusion and bewilderment comes over the reader. Moreover, the book would have gained in force by greater brevity, more scholarly method, and closer adherence to what gives it its distinctive value, the subject of employment of women in new fields of labor. However, as we proceed in our reading we lose any disposition to criticise in our interest in the general theme, and admiration of the enthusiasm and ability of this woman, who has made it her life-work to help her sister-women.

Miss Faithfull has travelled extensively in the United States, and also visited Canada—everywhere in search of the upraising of women into new and fruitful activities; everywhere closely observant of all that has been done to help them on, whether in mental culture, or toward industrial facilities or political power; everywhere warmly welcomed by all men and women who sympathized in this vast new movement, or who appreciated her earnest work in a most worthy cause. The average reader will be surprised to find how many employments are now open to women, as well as at the great success which some capable individuals have had in pursuits generally considered purely masculine. We are told that "when Harriet Martineau visited America in 1840 [*sic* for 1834] she found only seven occupations open to women; to-day, in Massachusetts alone, there are nearly three hundred different branches of industry by which women can earn from one hundred to three thousand dollars a year." Among individual examples of success are mentioned that of Miss Austin, of California, who has a large vineyard reported to produce the best raisins in the State; of Mrs. Rogers, of Texas, who has a herd of 40,000 cattle; of Mrs. Janet Taylor, of London, who

taught navigation and even made improvements in nautical instruments. Among the industries here or in England which are comparatively new to women, Miss Faithfull speaks of house-decorating, drawing in connection with ship-building—that is, in the employ of ship-builders—glass-staining, silk-weaving, specimen-mounting, etc., etc. In some countries to which emigration is flowing the openings for women's work seem very promising. Miss Faithfull thinks that silk-culture in California ought to become a very profitable field of labor.

Her remarks in regard to "home employments" and to the necessity of *fitting* for work are very sensible. In regard to the first she says: "After many years of practical work in various directions I do not hesitate to describe (them) as delusive. Artists and authors are the only people who can earn an income under such conditions." She censures the indisposition of people in easy circumstances to train their daughters to useful work. "All work requires an apprenticeship, and those who wait till the hour of need really comes, will probably discover that they have lost the strength of body and elasticity of mind to encounter difficulties which could have been faced in youth with every chance of success."

It goes without saying that Miss Faithfull advocates the franchise for women. Her opinion on this matter is not embellished by flights of fancy, but enforced by strong, practical reasons, as indeed are her opinions on all subjects of which she treats. It would be hard to find a more thoroughly sensible book, or one fuller of suggestion, or one better adapted to encourage young women to throw off conventionalism and see things in the clear light of truth. We cordially recommend it to those who have kept abreast of the "woman question" and to those who have not. The former will know how to enjoy and appreciate it; the latter will be amazed and instructed, and all must feel how richly Miss Faithfull deserves the gratitude of women.

Outlines of Historic Ornament. Translated from the German. Edited by Gilbert R. Redgrave. With illustrations. Scribner & Welford. 1884.

Sic vos non vobis might be the motto of this little book. Three persons are concerned in making it—author, translator, and editor—but we are given the name of only that one, the editor, who has had least to do with it, having only, as it seems, read the proof and patted author and translator on the head in an inconsiderable preface. It is not new to see Mr. Redgrave's name on the title-pages of books upon this and like subjects; we

may frankly say that experience of his writing makes the disappearance of the real producers behind his name seem a needless modesty or an undue vassalage. This was probably written for a school text-book, and we may assume that South Kensington had to do with its translation. It might be used in cramming for a particular examination; its valid excuse for being we do not see. It is too rudimentary for a student, or for any one but the uninstructed general reader, and too lacking in perspective and emphasis to be of real use to him. The catechetical method adopted has a value in marking salient points, but the interchange of question and answer makes a clear, broad sketch of the subject almost impossible, while it calls for a skill in analysis which this author has not. It leads him to a profitless cataloguing of details, together with an attempt at conciseness which vacillates between statements too vague to be significant and generalizations so abrupt as to be untrustworthy or misleading. The author has apparently thrown away upon a thankless undertaking a considerable examination of authorities and a fair general knowledge of his subject, though not enough close study to save him from blunders in detail.

Aids to Writing Latin Prose. With Exercises. By G. G. Bradley, D.D., Dean of Westminster. Edited and arranged by T. L. Papillon, M.A. London: Rivingtons. 1884. 12mo, pp. 317.

The materials for this admirable treatise were prepared by Dean Bradley before his appointment to his present dignity, and are now put in shape by Mr. Papillon, the duties of his new office preventing the author from giving to them the time that they needed. The several heads of Latin grammar are taken up in order, with discussions of great insight and suggestiveness, and then follow more than a hundred pages of exercises, of a very varied character. The aim is to train the pupil in idiomatic translation, both from Latin into English and from English into Latin. "The style," he says in the Introduction, "of what is called 'liberal translation,' that is, the rendering of Latin into the uncouth and unnatural English with which the ill-taught youth still shocks the University examiner, should be either materially abridged or absolutely annihilated." Taught properly, the study of Latin is as valuable for a knowledge of English as for a knowledge of the language in hand, and for this purpose it would be hard to find a better aid than that before us. It would be well if it could be put in the hands of every Latin teacher in the country.

writer must be destitute of all discernment. To him it sounds like the ring of a new voice, which is likely to be heard far and wide among the English-speaking peoples."

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Dynamo-Electricity: Its Generation, Application, Transmission, Storage, and Measurement. By George B. Prescott. D. Appleton & Co. 1884.

THE first 126 pages of this book are to be found in pages 400 to 525 of Mr. Prescott's 'Speaking Telephone,' etc., published by Appleton & Co. in 1879, and, with the exception of a one-page illustration copied from Dechanel, the first thirty pages are also to be found in pages 400 to 423 of his 'Speaking Telephone, Talking Phonograph,' etc., published by the same firm in 1878. Mr. Prescott's so-called "works" mainly consist of excerpts transferred bodily, usually without credit and without quotation marks, from the writings of other people. In the present case, he seems to have drawn largely from the circulars and trade publications of electric-light companies and other parties engaged in the manufacture and sale of electrical appliances. The result is a jumble of undigested materials, brought together by a process for which we have in vain sought an exact epithet; perhaps, prescoting (after the analogy of boycotting) will answer.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Johannot-Bouton. *How We Live. The Human Body and How to Take Care of It.* D. Appleton & Co. 20 cents.
Seton, Sir H. W. *Forms of Decrees, Judgments, and Orders. With Practical Notes.* Am. ed. by F. F. Heard. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Sheridan's Comedies. *The Rivals and the School for Scandal.* Biographical Sketch by Brander Matthews. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$3.
Spence Exell Neil. *Thirty Thousand Thoughts, being Extracts Covering a Comprehensive Circle of Religious and Allied Topics.* Vol. II. Funk & Wagnalls.
Stevens, Frances. *The Usages of the Best Society.* A. L. Burt. 50 cents.
Stevens, J. L. *History of Gustavus Adolphus.* G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.50.
Stories by American Authors. No. 7. Charles Scribner's Sons. \$1.25.
Stormont's Dictionary of the English Language. Parts 7-11. Excheat-Mint. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 25 cents.
Sturges, J. *My Friends and I.* Henry Holt & Co. \$1.
The Young Engineer's Own Book. Containing an Explanation of the Principle and Theories of the Steam Engine. Illustrated. Philadelphia: Edward Meeks. \$3.
Tourgee, A. W. *An Appeal to Caesar.* Foris, Howard & Hubert. \$1.
Trail, H. D. *Coleridge.* Harper & Brothers.
Trumbull, H. C. *Teaching and Teachers; or the Sunday-School Teacher's Work.* Philadelphia: John B. Wat-ties.
Veley, Margaret. *Mitchellhurst Place.* A Novel. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Vincent-Hurlbut. *The Lesson Commentary on the International Sunday-School Lessons for 1885.* Phillips & Hunt. \$1.25.
Watson, J. M. *Graphic Speller, Oral and Written.* A. S. Barnes & Co. \$2.
Wentworth-Hill. *Exercise Manual of Geometry.* Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 80 cents.
Woods, Prof. L. *History of the Amherst Theological Seminary.* Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co. \$3.50.
Wright, T. W. *A Treatise on the Adjustment of Observations, with Applications to Geodetic Work and other Measures of Precision.* D. Van Nostrand.
Young, A. *The Catholic Hymnal: Containing Hymns for Congregational and Home Use.* Catholic Publication Society.
Zola, E. *Mysteries of Marseilles.* Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Brothers. 50 cents.

NEW BOOKS:

ORCHIDS: The Royal Family of Plants. With illustrations from nature by Harriet Stewart Miner, comprising twenty-four magnificent specimens in colors, each 10x14 inches. Cloth, full gilt, \$15.00; Turkey morocco, \$25.00.

ONE YEAR'S SKETCH BOOK: A Series of Illustrations of the Scenes and Flowers of Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter. By Irene E. Jerome. Comprising forty-six full-page pictures, 9x14 inches, original drawings, engraved in the best manner by John Andrew & Son. Cloth, \$6.00; Turkey morocco, \$12.00.

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